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THE  
CRITICAL REVIEW;  
OR,  
ANNALS OF LITERATURE.

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VOL. XXXIX.

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T. DAVISON,  
Printer,  
White-friars.

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CRITICAL REVIEW

ANALYSIS OF LITERATURE

THE

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OF

ANALYSIS OF LITERATURE

VOL. XXII

T. Davison,  
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White-Hall.



*Dr S Hamilton Jun*

THE

CRITICAL REVIEW;

OR,

Annals of Literature;

EXTENDED & IMPROVED.

BY

A SOCIETY OF GENTLEMEN.

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A NEW ARRANGEMENT.

VOL. XXXIX.

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—NOTHING EXTENUATE,  
NOR SET DOWN AUGHT IN MALICE SHAKESPEARE.

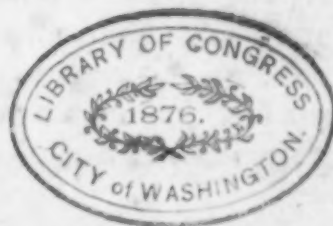
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1803.



CRITICAL REVIEW

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Annals of Literature

REVISED EDITION

A SOCIETY OF GENTLEMEN

AND A NEW METHOD OF READING

VOL. XXII

NEW YORK

1850

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THE  
CRITICAL REVIEW.

SEPTEMBER, 1803.

ART. I.—*Historical Surgery, or the Progress of the Science of Medicine: on Inflammation, Mortification, and Gun-Shot Wounds.* By John Hunt. 4to. 1l. 1s. Boards. Rivingtons.

MR. HUNT appears to be an attentive judicious practitioner: he probes, however, to the quick; and his applications are in some degree corrosive, when, perhaps, emollients might have been applied with more advantage. To drop the metaphor, his criticisms, though accurate, are severe; and, were a reviewer, in his warfare, to be as 'extreme, to mark what is done amiss,' he must expect more clamorous complaints, than are generally met with, large as is his constant portion. In the introduction, he speaks of the advantages of experimental philosophy to a surgeon; but its importance is somewhat exaggerated. So far as it facilitates contrivances of convenience, and stores the mind with ready resources, it may be highly useful; but its actual employment scarcely extends beyond the first principles of mechanics. When we advance to the sublimer regions of philosophy, and endeavour to apply its truths to the animal machine, the greatest errors have been the consequence. Our author quotes, as an instance of this nature, Dr. Mead's tract '*De Imperio Solis et Lunæ in Corpore humano*,' founded on the Newtonian theory of the tides. The sun and moon cannot, he shows, have any influence on the human body: but this objection he carries too far. The Mediterranean has no tides, because its extent is not sufficient for the heavenly bodies to produce the necessary expansion; and Dda Place has demonstrated, that, unless we admit the depth of the ocean to be much greater than philosophers have supposed, tides cannot be produced, even in the Atlantic, by the attraction of the sun and moon. This gives additional force to the objection of our author: but he does not advert to a more remote influence. Aërial tides are certainly produced; and, from the variation of the air's pressure, the human body is affected. The mercury in the Torricellian vacuum, from the same change, feels the influence of these bodies, as minuter observers of the variation of the height of the quicksilver have shown. Epilepsy we have certainly seen affected by the growing moon; and we must admit, with practitioners of credit, in warmer climates,

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that the periods of fevers are also influenced by the changes of that luminary. These observations, however, do not acquit Dr. Mead of the charges adduced by our author; and his fate affords a melancholy picture of the little durability of professional fame. Dr. Mead, not long since at the head of the medical profession, is now in the lowest rank. His works are seldom quoted, but to be confuted; and, when examined, they will be found not to add a grain to the stock of medical science. He was a man of learning, not of judgement: he could probably remember what his predecessors had observed; but he could not combine it with his own acquisitions: he could not, by reflexion, by comparison, or abstraction, elicit new truths, in addition to the dogmas of his masters. '*He could not*'—the expression may be too strong: he certainly *did not*.

The first section of this work is on 'The Imperfections of the Treatment of Mortification, exemplified by the indiscriminate Use of the Bark at improper Periods of the Disease.'—In his historical view of the subject, Mr. Hunt begins with Mr. Bromfield, and marks, with disapprobation, his vague, indiscriminate, and contradictory language on the subject. We have not a word to say in his favour: but think Mr. Hunt somewhat unfair, in not taking up the inquiry *ab eo*, and giving the state of our knowledge of the subject at the time of Mr. Bromfield's publication. One of the earliest, if not the earliest, authors who recommended bark in mortifications, was, we believe, the first Dr. Monro, who also first applied it in the worst stages of the small-pox.

The second section comprises 'The Division of Mortification into two Species, illustrative of the Effects of Bark and Opium.'—This part relates to Mr. Pott's observation on the mortification of the toes and feet; and our author is peculiarly severe on the confusion of Mr. Pott's language, and the irrelevance of some of his remarks. Mr. Hunt pretty plainly intimates, that the opium was used by accident; and, when the surgeon was successful, he was not aware to whom he owed his success. A want of candour, in not mentioning his predecessor Mr. Sharp's remarks, is also, in our author's opinion, reprehensible; and where opium has appeared to succeed, much may be probably attributed to the efforts of the constitution in the conquest of the disease.

'III. Amputation considered as a Remedy in Cases of Mortification; and the Ambiguity of the public Opinion on this Subject.'—In this section, also, our author supposes the opinion of Mr. Sharp, that no amputation should take place, till not only a separation appears, but the constitution has regained some share of firmness; and is severe on Mr. Bell, not only for seeming to lean to the side of those who would perform the operation before any separation was obvious, but for more point-

edly recommending the operation very soon afterwards. The opinion of Mr. Sharp should, however, be taken with some limitations; and, when the strength is much lessened, the operation will be more early admissible. The hæmorrhage must, in this case, be guarded against with peculiar caution, and the most active cordials and tonics employed to support the strength. We would put also another question. As it is easier to prevent than to cure, may there not be a case of such peculiar rapidity, that death must be the consequence of delay?—If then we operate on a sound part, is it not probable that the *impending* gangrene on the stump may be prevented by remedies, which would not operate on the *existing* disease in the extremity?

‘Section IV. The Physiology of the Circulation of the Blood considered as the Basis of the Pathology of Inflammation, and its Consequences.’—In this section, our author notices Mr. Hunter's opinions respecting the circulation, from his work on gun-shot wounds, and points out many inconsistencies and errors. Mr. Hunter is of opinion, that the circulation is carried on by the powers of the heart alone.

‘Section V. The modern Treatment of Mortification, in Cases of Gun-Shot Wounds.’—Mr. Hunt's object is to show that the modern practice on this subject is neither rational nor discriminated. The limits within which bark, bleeding, and opium are necessary, practitioners have not yet ascertained. This is particularly shown by observations on Mr. Hunter's work, in which that author's vague and inconsistent directions are shrewdly pointed out, and somewhat severely criticised. Mr. Hunter's want of education is, indeed, conspicuous in every one of his volumes and papers. We are dazzled with new views, and tantalised with the prospects of new discoveries; but, when examined, the light is an *ignis fatuus*, and the discoveries are loose and uncertain hints.

‘Section VI. The Distinction between local Inflammation and phlogistic Diathesis, with an Explanation of the Effects of Bleeding in inflammatory Diseases.’—In this section, our author treats of bleeding very satisfactorily. He limits its particularly salutary effects to the inflammatory state of the system, distinguished by sizzly blood; and remarks, that, in wounds of the extremities, though, in the full and plethoric, bleeding may be useful, yet it is not an absolutely essential remedy.

‘In many instances of fever, where the pulse is hard and full, a single bleeding may be made use of with advantage, merely to correct the plethoric state of the system, but can seldom be repeated with safety. It is in true inflammatory diseases that bleeding is so particularly efficacious; in simple fever and in many other cases, where it is indiscriminately made use of, it can only be looked upon as a doubtful auxiliary; but in true inflammation it is a specific antidote. It is only in those dis-



eases that produce a sizzly state of the blood that bleeding is so particularly salutary; an inflammatory disease may exist without a sizzly state of the blood, but a sizzly state of the blood cannot exist independent of an inflammatory disease; this state of the blood is the consequence and not the cause of the disease.

'I have carefully attended to the progress of the inflammatory symptoms in cases of active hæmorrhage, and, being apprehensive of the approaching paroxysm, have taken away a large bason of blood, which has not shown the least appearance of size; and I have frequently met with instances of this disease, where the hæmorrhage has taken place in less than an hour after I had bled the patient. I have under these circumstances immediately repeated the bleeding, and found the blood taken by this second operation strongly marked with size; in many instances I have found the returning hæmorrhage, and the sizzly state of the blood, so regularly accompany each other, as if the sizzly state of the blood was the immediate consequence of the discharge.'

P. 122.

Erysipelas is included among the inflammatory diseases; by which it appears probable, as well as from some of the other remarks on bleeding, that the author has practised in the country. In crowded cities, these directions must be followed with some limitations. The buffy coat seems to influence Mr. Hunt more than it does other practitioners, though he chiefly rests on the symptoms of the complaint, as well as on its seat. Since inflammation of the viscera is generally attended with inflammatory diathesis, in every, at least almost every, instance of this kind our author seems to think bleeding useful; nor does he consider those internal inflammations, from what is called misplaced gout, to be an exception. He seems inclined, in the latter instance, to believe the gout suspended, rather than that its seat is changed; and adds some arguments in opposition to Mr. Hunter's opinion, that two diseases cannot exist, at the same time, in the same system. So far as the opinion is true, it is, that one disease may suspend for a time the action of the other; and, in this view, the doctrine is as old as Hippocrates.

'Section VII. The Influence of topical Bleeding demonstrated, and the Inefficacy explained.'—General bleeding, Mr. Hunt thinks to be chiefly effectual, by the sudden depletion of the system, in which topical bleeding must fail. Even opening the temporal artery is, in his opinion, useless, in comparison with the evacuation from the arm; and leeches, or cupping-glasses, still less powerful. The arguments by which he endeavours to disprove the utility of topical bleeding, we cannot answer; but we think its efficacy supported by experience. One circumstance, respecting the operation of leeches, has not been sufficiently attended to, though we have often mentioned it; *viz.* that the leech draws its blood by previous suction, and the first effect is filling the vessels around with blood. In this view, the effect, in relieving over-distended vessels, is somewhat greater

than in proportion to the quantity drawn: but, at the same time, it supports the author in his opposition to Mr. Hunter's practice, of applying leeches to inflammation produced by external injuries. The practice is, however, fashionable, and will continue, for a time, to be so, 'though the charmer charm never so wisely.'

In the eighth section Mr. Hunt returns to historic Surgery, in 'The historical Evidence of the Effects of the Bark in Cases of Mortification.'—Our author examines the original writers in this part of the work; and we find that, in this disease, it was used earlier than the practice of the elder Monro. We believe, however, as we have already said, that he first gave it in the worst cases of small-pox. In this inquiry Mr. Hunt examines particularly all the early cases, and endeavours to show that the bark was useless, and that the salutary terminations were owing to the cordials, or the spontaneous efforts of nature. We are surprised that a man of Mr. Hunt's acuteness should have overlooked a circumstance in the case recorded by Mr. Douglass. In this, the worst symptoms occurred on the 30th of April: on the 3d of May, two abscesses were *already formed*, ready for opening. The fever was evidently the last effort of nature to produce these abscesses, and the relief sprung from their formation\*.

'Section IX. The chirurgical Treatment of those Diseases which are the immediate Consequence of external Injury.'—We cannot follow our author minutely on this subject, and can only notice the more prominent and important positions. In general, Mr. Hunt prefers warm applications for external injuries, and even when mortification impends. When moisture may be injurious, or its application attended with inconvenience, dry heat may, he thinks, be advantageously employed, with the stimulus of volatile alkali on the neighbouring parts. Compound fractures, if no mortification menace, or loose bones require removal, should not be very frequently opened; and, in general, the less the irritation, the more safe and rapid will be the cure. Fractures, he thinks, should be reduced early, even though tumefaction appear. The swelling is in this way sooner lessened, but a kind of emphysematous intumescence is sometimes produced, which even a slight pressure will remove.

'Section X. The medicinal Treatment of those Diseases

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\* It is singular that accident often interposes to assist the credit of new remedies; and it is curious to remark that first trials often dazzle by an appearance of astonishing success, which future experience does not always confirm. The person on whom Mrs. Stevens's medicine was tried by authority of parliament (a convict), was reported cured; and, indeed, the stone could not be felt by the sound. It appeared, on dissection, that it had formed a sac, by pressing through the coats of the bladder. Our author adds another instance of early success, not supported by subsequent experience in his use of the digitalis. REV.

which are the immediate Consequence of external Injury, illustrated by the Phænomena of analogous Disease.'—Bleeding our author had before spoken of; but, as external injuries are not usually attended with phlogistic diathesis, bleeding he thinks not particularly requisite. This remedy he asserts to be incompatible with opium; but he does not appear to recollect that the opium, in the works quoted, is mixed with an antimonial. This union he afterwards seems to approve; and, as purging in fractures is inadmissible, the antimonial with nitre is the chief remedy for reducing the fever. After the fever is lessened, bark may be employed: but, as Mr. Hunt is an enemy to its general and indiscriminate use, we shall select his own words.

'I do not pretend to determine at what distance of time from the period when the accident first took place, the bark may be given in cases of external injury of the extremities; it is the state of the disease, and not the time of its duration, that is to determine the point in question. If the free use of the lancet, which some have recommended, can ever be thought necessary for the purpose of correcting the increased action of the system, bark in this state of the disease must certainly be improper. But at that very instant when the increased action begins to diminish and the fever to subside, at that critical period not a moment should be lost, and bark then becomes a most important remedy.

'At the same time that it will be necessary to watch the progress of the disease with the most cautious attention, as the fever may subside in some instances sooner than in others, and as in some cases it may be difficult to ascertain the time when this critical period does take place, it is certainly an object worthy of our consideration to determine whether the bark may be given with safety before the crisis of the fever does take place, as it certainly would be right to meet that hazard which is attended with the least danger on this occasion.

'I do not mean to compromise the matter with those who advise the use of the bark at the commencement, or in an early period of the disease, for the purpose of preventing mortification; I only wish to recommend a cautious line of conduct, and to guard against a practical error of an opposite nature that might prove equally prejudicial. I do not think this is a question that admits of compromise in principle; but as it is impossible to regulate our practice with scientific certainty, I only wish to introduce this observation for the purpose of guarding as much as possible against an imperfection that is, in some degree, unavoidable.

'I do not suppose that any one will contend that the fever immediately changes from the highest degree of morbid action to the lowest degree of putrid debility. But I think it is evident that the declension is by degrees, and that there is a regular decrease of action from the acme of fever to the commencement of putrid diathesis. But whatever may be the rapidity of the declension, no truth can be more evident than that the change must take place before it can become perceptible. Now as it is, in my opinion, an object of great importance that the



energy of the constitution should be supported at this critical period, and as in practice it will be impossible exactly to mark the change; I should by the bed-side advise that the bark should rather be given a few hours too soon than one too late.' p. 251.

Bark our author prefers to every cordial; and thinks, if the bark should prove useless, all others would be of little avail.

Having spoken of warm applications, our author digresses a little in examining their effects, and the means by which they succeed; and, in this inquiry, he rests on the experiments of Dr. Parr (published, we believe, in a thesis), analysed in the Medical Commentaries. He next proceeds to visceral inflammations, in which he commends the warm bath, with bleeding, and expresses the strongest disapprobation of the use of opiates. Our experience—and we can in some measure boast of our success—does not, however, agree with that of Mr. Hunt; and we greatly regret it, as he seems a very attentive and judicious practitioner. We will, nevertheless, remark, that his good opinion of bleeding, and dislike of opium, appear to us as the effects of a little prejudice, unless the peculiarity of his situation in the country may be allowed to explain it. We have always given opium early, and in quantities to relieve pain, and diminish the too great irritability of the stomach: after that effect has been produced, we order laxatives. This plan has very generally succeeded. Unfortunately for the warm bath, those who have been immersed in it, and we believe those only, have fallen. Tartar emetic, in a desperate case, we once found successful. An eighth of a grain was given every five minutes, then a sixth, then a quarter; each dose in a small tea-spoonful of water only. Mr. Hunt pursues the subject; but his apparent antipathy to opiates remains unsubdued. The cases of internal suppuration, appearing at first as inflammation of the bowels, are, we suspect, owing to inflammation, and consequent suppuration of the peritonæum. We some time since saw several instances of this kind, in several of which suppuration was prevented: in others it proceeded: but one of these only survived, with symptoms not unlike those of the successful case recorded by our author. In these instances, as well as in dropsy, Mr. Hunt seems to approve of the fox-glove, and thinks that it acts by lessening the secretions, as it lessens the action of the whole sanguiferous system. Various observations on this medicine in phthisis, with digressions on collateral subjects, fill the remainder of this section, which are too miscellaneous to be minutely pursued, and perhaps too slightly connected with the principal subject, to have occupied so many pages.

The last section is entitled, 'The operative Part of Surgery, considered as a Remedy for Disease.'—This needs not detain us long, as a great part is employed in remarks on the modern me-

thods, and projected or pretended improvements of later surgeons, in performing amputation. Mr. Hunt, with great propriety, recommends early operation in cases of external injury. The extraction of balls, and other extraneous matter, from gunshot wounds, should also, in his opinion, be attempted early; and he adds some remarks on the opposite advice of Mr. Hunter. The directions for the management of the tourniquet are judicious; and it is properly observed, that it should not be twisted tighter than is sufficient to check the circulation of the blood in the artery.—The remarks on the operation of trepanning, and that for the reduction of the bubonocoele, are not of particular importance.

After the long account which we have given of the present work, we need not add any general character. Mr. Hunt appears to be a judicious practitioner, and an able operator; yet we have perceived and marked some opinions which bear the stamp of prejudice, and prove that he has practised in a part of the country where diseases are more acutely inflammatory, and evacuations of blood are borne more easily. To surgeons this work will be of importance; and the younger surgeon may study it with peculiar advantage.

ART. II.—*Chalmers's Edition of the British Essayists.* (Continued from our last volume, p. 301.)

THE Spectator has been so often the theme of panegyric, that eulogy can scarcely invent new terms to convey its merits; and perhaps the excellence of these volumes will in no instance be more strongly felt, than when, after years of other pursuits and different inquiries, we return to their perusal. We may sometimes, indeed, be shocked by an inaccuracy of language in these boasted models of perfection: we may feel, with some force, the exhibition of manners less correct than our own, of foibles apparently more glaring, because less common; for follies have their æra, and change without any real melioration of morals. But, on the other hand, the generally elegant simplicity of the diction, the curious felicity of the expressions, will still delight the cultivated mind: the critical remarks, equally distinguished for their refined delicacy and sound judgement, will polish the taste, and add to our knowledge: the defences of the moral duties, and the great truths of our religion, will awfully impress us with the indispensable importance of each. It is a subject of regret that so few of its authors are now known. It was the bow with which, when striplings, they first attempted to contend with Ulysses; and by the use of which they arrived at greater strength, and more matured powers.

The Tatler, it is observed, closed unexpectedly, for reasons



not very satisfactory or conclusive. The appearance of the *Spectator*, however, should have at once solved the ænigma. Addison's latest contribution to the *Tatler* was on the 23d of December; and the last paper of the work itself was published the 2d of January following. The first paper of '*The Spectator*' is dated March 1, of the same year. In this short period, a plan of vast extent, comprising a great variety of objects, matured in its different parts, and finished with peculiar care, was completed, if we allow not an earlier communication between Steele and Addison. Whether the *Tatler* were, or were not, a trial of skill, as has been pretended, it was evidently encumbered with some extraneous and unsuitable additions, which broke the uniformity of the whole, and narrowed the limits of more important discussion. It was probably resolved that it should drop; and Steele may have done abruptly, without Addison's particular concurrence, what was not designed to last much longer. The *Spectator*, as we have said, succeeded after a very short interval; and was supported with a steadiness, spirit, and ability, which have rendered it the admiration of succeeding years—we had almost said ages: but we have ourselves seen some of the heroes of that field, and conversed with them on the events of the warfare. The secrets, however, which they chose to conceal, it becomes not us to enlarge on.

Addison brought to this attempt the hoarded treasures of a youth spent in study—the result of much reflexion, and varied as well as extensive inquiries. It is thus that men are often supposed to write with little labour, because the toil is not perceived at the moment. The well-regulated mind has its stores in complete order; and, when the subject is once given, has only to draw on the bank of his former inquiries. Such a man writes, indeed, with facility and fluency: but the labour is that of years long since elapsed; and a few lines may contain the result of much reflexion and intense study. To Addison, at that time, little remained but to write what he had before considered; and he had sufficient time to polish his language, which he did with a scrupulous, a punctilious nicety. Steele, as in the *Tatler*, returned the ball with less anxious accuracy, but with a spirit which sometimes prevents us from determining whence it came. We cannot find a stronger instance of this kind, than in the character of sir Roger de Coverley, as stated by Mr. Chalmers, which, after all that has been said of Addison's exquisite humour in the delineation, was really first described by Steele. After copying Dr. Beattie's masterly observations on the remarks of Johnson relative to this subject, Mr. Chalmers proceeds:—

'No addition is necessary to this vindication of the character of sir Roger de Coverley in the general; but it has not been attended to by either of these critics, that sir Roger was not the creature of Addison's,

but of Steele's fancy; and it is not easy to discover why all writers on this subject should appear ignorant of a fact so necessary to be known, and so easily ascertained. In Tickell's edition of Addison's works, and in every subsequent edition, (Dr. Beattie's not excepted) No. 2 is reprinted, but ascribed to Steele, with an apology for joining it with Addison's papers, on account of its connection with what follows. Steele, in truth, sketched the character of every member of the club, except that of the Spectator. The merit, therefore, of what Dr. Johnson calls "the delicate and discriminated idea," or "the original delineation" of sir Roger, beyond all controversy belongs to him, and the character of the baronet, it must be observed, is in that paper very different from what Dr. Johnson represents. His "singularities proceed from his good sense," not, I allow, a very common source of singularities, in the usual acceptation of that word; and before he was "crossed in love by the perverse widow, he was a gay man of the town." And with respect to the care Addison took of the knight's chastity, and his resentment of the story told in No. 410, which is certainly a deviation from the character as he *completed* it, we may observe, that the original limner represents him as "humble in his desires after he had forgot his cruel beauty, insomuch that it is reported he has frequently offended in point of chastity with beggars and gipsies," though he qualifies this by adding, that "this is looked upon, by his friends, rather as matter of raillery than truth." He is represented as now in his fifty-sixth year, and the story therefore of his endeavouring to persuade a strumpet to retire with him into the country, as related in No. 410, some think by Tickell, was certainly unnatural.

' The truth appears to have been, that Addison was charmed with his colleague's outline of sir Roger, thought it capable of extension and improvement, and might probably determine to make it in some measure his own, by guarding, with a father's fondness, against any violation that might be offered. How well he has accomplished this needs not to be told. Yet he neither immediately laid hold on what he considered as Steele's property, nor did he wish to monopolize the worthy knight. Sir Roger's notion, that "none but men of fine parts deserve to be hanged," and his illustration of this curious position in No. 6, were written by Steele. The first paper, relating to the visit to sir Roger's country seat, is Addison's, the second Steele's, the third Addison's, and the fourth Steele's; and this last has so much of the Addisonian humour, that nothing but positive evidence could have deprived him of the honour of being supposed the author of it: the same praise may be given to No. 113, also by Steele. The sum of the account, however, is this: sir Roger's adventures, opinions, and conversation, occur in twenty-six papers: of these Addison wrote fifteen, Steele seven, Budgell three, and Tickell one; if, as is supposed, he was the author of the obnoxious No. 410. It must be observed too, that the widow part of sir Roger's history was of Steele's providing, in No. 113, and 118. Addison, no doubt, attended to the *keep* of sir Roger's character, and Steele, with his usual candour, might follow a plan which he reckoned superior to his own: but it cannot be just to attribute the totality of the character either to the one or the other.

' The "killing of sir Roger" has been sufficiently accounted for, without supposing that Addison dispatched him in a fit of anger, for



the work was about to close, and it appeared necessary to disperse the club: but whatever difference of opinion there may be concerning this circumstance, it is universally agreed that it produced a paper of transcendent excellence in all the graces of simplicity and pathos. There is not in our language any assumption of character more faithful than that of the honest butler, nor a more irresistible stroke of nature than the circumstance of the book received by sir Andrew Freeport.\* Vol. vi. p. xvii.

That little use is made of the characters of sir Andrew Freeport, of captain Sentry, and the Clergyman, must be admitted; and the solution of the riddle is sufficiently obvious. In the delineation of a plan, room must be left for the different exigencies which may arise. Sir Andrew Freeport may have been intended as a contrast to sir Roger; and captain Sentry, with the Clergyman, to have corrected the weaknesses or the errors of Will Honeycombe. The writers knew not, in the beginning, how largely they might draw on the follies of mankind; nor could they say how attractive their more serious disquisitions might prove. The town might require more copious draughts of politics, of gaiety, or perhaps of anecdote; and it was necessary to be prepared for every exigency.

\* Many of the subjects discussed in these volumes may now appear trite, because frequent repetition and successive illustration have rendered them familiar; but in estimating the value and utility of such instructions, we must take into the account the wants and necessities of the public at the time they were given. Literature did not then pass through so many channels as in our days, nor were the facilities of communication so many: the number of readers was not great, and the books calculated by allurements to increase that number were very few. The demand for instruction, however, increased with the opportunities of supply, and they whom the Essayists taught to know a little, were soon incited by curiosity to know more. The duties of life had never been discussed in a popular manner, nor in portions adapted to the idle or the casual reader. Above all, the niceties of literature were not generally understood, and it is not the smallest merit of Addison, that "he superadded criticism," prescribed the rules of taste, and introduced a relish for genius that had been depressed, or overlooked. His criticisms on *Paradise Lost* directed the public admiration to a work which is now justly the boast of the nation; and although his successors in critical labours have been able not only to improve them, but to point out their defects, it ought to be remembered that he wrote without those helps from combined taste and skill which they now enjoy. "It is not uncommon for those who have grown wise by the labour of others, to add a little of their own, and overlook their masters. Addison is now despised by some who, perhaps, would never have seen his defects, but by the lights which he afforded them." Vol. vi. p. xxvii.

The additional remarks on Addison's humour, and his style, merit our commendation. With respect to those on Dr. Blair's

observations, we may add, that a criticism on a paper from the *Spectator* was a frequent exercise given to his pupils. This was done, not only that they might study the style of Addison intimately, but to point out its beauties, as well as its defects. It is true that Dr. Blair's own language was not correct; and many inaccuracies of diction in the lectures are pointed out in our 56th volume, p. 272.—The short digression on style ('it is far from impertinent') is pleasing and judicious. We may safely conclude with Mr. Chalmers—

'Yet when the beauty and defects of all are fully displayed before us, as they have been by modern critics of acknowledged taste, are we not induced to suspect that much of the improvement to be derived from such critical labour is impracticable, that between the style and the mind of every author the connection is indissoluble, and that he who would write like another must always have his genius, and sometimes even his subject?' Vol. vi. p. xxxv.

The life of Addison is written with neatness and propriety. Mr. Chalmers admits his fondness for wine; but thinks 'it was the vice of the day among wits, and that wits have seldom discovered it to be a vice;' but that, from whatever cause it may have proceeded, the deviations were probably exaggerated; for it did not produce any degradation of manners: it did not undermine either his morality or his religion.

The biographic sketches of the assistants in these volumes are introduced by a short account of Eustace Budgell, whose talents are appreciated with justice, and whose unfortunate end is properly attributed to a deranged state of mind. Twenty-eight papers are generally attributed to him, marked X\*: to which, later annotators have added the letter signed Eustace—No. 539, and Nos. 591, 602, 605, and 628. Mr. Hughes next follows, and is succeeded by Pope, to whom 'a short letter, with a few verses,' in No. 527, can only, with safety, be attributed. Mr. John Byrom, of whom Mr. Chalmers gives a brief account, contributed but few papers. These were, however, light and elegant: his later years were tinged with gloom and Behmenism. Mr. Henry Grove, of Taunton, a dissenting minister, was not a frequent, though a very valuable contributor: his papers on morality and religion are truly excellent.

We next find some authors of fewer pretensions, and less entitled to our particular notice. Yet we must not omit the lord-chancellor Hardwicke, who wrote the letter signed 'Philip Homebred'—Parnel, whose visions were received with peculiar regard and attention—Orator Henley, who, in the earlier part of life, possessed a share of peculiar humour, without the buffoonery of his later years—the author of two letters signed Peter de Quir and Tom Twicer—and Dr. Zachary Pearce, bi-



shop of Rochester, who contributed numbers 572 on quacks, and 633 on eloquence.—The eighth volume was published by Budgell, with the assistance of Addison, after the Guardian had closed. The ninth volume is spurious, *sine corpore nomen*. The sale of the Spectators was immense; but the number is uncertain. It has vibrated from 1400 to 14000: perhaps the number daily sold did not greatly exceed at any time 3000. This, however, is astonishing, at a period when the readers were less numerous than at present, and political disquisitions more generally attractive.

The 'Guardian' succeeded the 'Spectator,' but is in many respects a less attractive collection; and the long account of the Lizard family renders it a heavy burthen in the perusal. Not a spark of genius animates the group. The Guardian, it is said, is a continuation of the Spectator, under another name. It was, however, a project of Steele's, seemingly begun without the concurrence of Addison, who wrote only one number before the 97th, and dropped in consequence of a private quarrel with the publisher. In this minute history of the work, there are many difficulties at present which are scarcely worth an inquiry, except to the worms of literature, who pierce those books which no one else will open. 'The address of the publisher (of the Guardian) to the reader,' Mr. Chalmers thinks, with great propriety, not to have been written by Steele.

Whatever may be the dulness of many parts, this series of Essays is enlivened by several papers of peculiar merit. The fancy, the spirit, and the humour, which appear to dictate many numbers, are exquisite; and, if their value be not felt in a peculiar degree, from the dulness of the rest, it seems to rise, in detached parts, above its immediate predecessor. Its supporters were Dr. George Berkley, who wrote about thirteen papers with singular spirit and success—Mr. Pope, whose eight numbers make us greatly regret that he had no larger share—Laurence Eusden—Dr. Z. Pearce—and probably Mr. Tickell, with others of less name and importance. This last gentleman had a share in the Spectator, but his labours are not distinguished; for T, supposed to be his signature, belongs to another person. It is difficult, at this time, to speak of Mr. Tickell with any thing which resembles accuracy. From Steele we have not received a favourable impression of his candour or his benevolence. The publication of the first book of Homer, at the time it appeared, certainly showed a degree of illiberality. Yet, in this transaction, he was the agent of Addison, who really translated, or liberally corrected, the version. The MS is said to have been in Tickell's writing, copiously corrected by Addison. But, when we consider Addison's scrupulous nicety, and the suspicious haste with which this part of the translation



was printed, it might still have been his; and, when a fair transcript had been made by Tickell, Addison might again have been dissatisfied, and added further corrections. No other work of equal merit has reached us from Tickell's pen; and he has been studiously silent in whatever concerned himself. Mr. Chalmers, after a short biographic narrative of Steele's assistants in the *Guardian*, gives an account of the different periodic Essayists, particularly those who have filled up the vacuum between the *Guardian* and the *Rambler*.—This account is entertaining; but we can only copy the conclusion.

‘ This list of the papers which succeeded the *Tatlers* and *Spectators*, although perhaps far from complete, may yet shew that the long space which intervened between the *Guardian* and the next work of merit in this edition of the Essayists, was filled up with many attempts of the periodical kind to instruct or to amuse, to inflame or to pacify the minds of the publick, according to the various views of the writers, or rather of those by whom they were employed, and it may also shew that the importance of this mode of communication was now universally acknowledged. It is indeed to be regretted that manners and morals, although evidently the great object of the *Spectator*, and what rendered that paper a profitable as well as honourable concern, were frequently forgot in the tumult of parties, civil and religious, and that the time again returned when “nothing was conveyed to the people” in the commodious manner of Essay, “but controversy relating to the church or state, of which they taught many to talk whom they could not teach to judge.”

‘ Of the works now enumerated by far the greater part are of this description; and although there are some valuable papers on general and useful topics, to be here and there discovered, yet they are so encumbered in the volumes of angry politics and long-forgotten contests, that they have suffered the common lot of those who associate with bad company. With respect to their general merit as compositions, if the publick be allowed the decisive judge of what is addressed to its collective capacity, we may gather what that decision long has been, by the difficulty with which we recover the dates or even the names of many papers which once proudly “strutted and fretted their hour” on the stage of political contest, and are now known not to the common but to the curious reader, and are to be found not in shops, but in ancient repositories, in which no place either of honour or distinction is allotted to them. We are now, however, entering on a new æra in the history of Essay Writing, a period during which the greatest talents were again called forth to combine wit and genius in the service of virtue, and to detach the public mind from the unprofitable speculations of political rancour.’ Vol. xvi. p. liii.

Long was the interval between the conclusion of the *Guardian* and the commencement of the *Rambler*. In a period of near forty-three years, no candidate for fame in this department has a sufficient claim to our editor's fostering care. In the beginning of the year 1750, the gigantic energy of Johnson undertook the task of engaging in this trial of skill with Addison and Steele. He engaged, almost alone, the band which had

rallied round the standard of Steele, and might say, with Ajax, *Non sum superatus ab illis*. Less skilled in the bland gentleness of persuasion—less successful in wielding the shafts of delicate irony—less versatile in the changes of style, necessary to vary the personification of different characters—Johnson could enforce the precepts of religion and morality with an irresistible power of reasoning, the most striking energy of language; could carry conviction by that discriminated choice of expression, which brings the argument at once home to the head and heart. The purposes of instruction and entertainment were carried on by his own powers alone; for, in five papers only, had he any assistance; and it is singular that four of these were from *young* ladies—miss Carter, miss Mulso (afterwards Mrs. Chapone), and miss Talbot. From the first, he received two numbers; and, from the author of Pamela and Clarissa, one. Mr. Chalmers's account of this work, and of Johnson's style, is truly excellent; and we have long hesitated whether we should copy largely, or refer only to the publication itself. Some specimens, both of his opinions and language, may perhaps be expected; but they cannot be very extensive.

It has been the subject of many panegyrics, that Johnson should have possessed the powers of writing with so much energy and accuracy, so much connexion and discrimination, without the necessity of revising or altering his first copy. He certainly possessed those powers in a surprising degree: but many do possess them; and more credit has been given to Johnson, on this score, than he merited. The second and third editions of the *Ramblers* have been corrected very liberally; and it was not generally known, before the publication of the preface before us, that more than *six thousand* alterations were made in these editions. In fact, as Mr. Chalmers alleges, they were almost re-written. Our author has added No. 180 of the original Rambler, marking by *Italics* the passages and words in which there was any change: they are more numerous than the lines.—The following parallel, or contrast, between Addison and Johnson, is masterly:—

‘ Comparisons have been formed between the Rambler and its predecessors, or rather between the genius of Johnson and of Addison, but have generally ended in discovering a total want of resemblance. As they were both original writers, they must be tried, if tried at all, by laws applicable to their respective attributes. But neither had a predecessor. We can find no humour like Addison's; no energy and dignity like Johnson's. They had nothing in common, but moral excellence of character; they could not have exchanged styles for an hour. Yet there is one respect in which we must give Addison the preference, more general utility. His writings would have been understood at any period; Johnson's would have perhaps been unintelligible a century ago, and are calculated for the more improved and li-



beral education now so common. In both, however, what was peculiar was natural. The earliest of Dr. Johnson's works confirm this; from the moment he could write at all, he wrote in stately periods; and his conversation from first till last abounded in the peculiarities of his composition. In general we may say, with Seneca, *Riget ejus oratio, nihil in ea placidum, nihil lenè*. Addison's style was the direct reverse of this.—If the “Lives of the Poets” be thought an exception to Dr. Johnson's general habit of writing, let it be remembered that he was for the most part confined to dates and facts, to illustrations, and criticisms, and quotations; but when he indulged himself in moral reflections, to which he delighted to recur, we have again the rigour and loftiness of the Rambler, and only miss some of what have been termed his hard words.

‘Addison principally excelled in the observation of manners, and in that exquisite ridicule he threw on the minute improprieties of life. Johnson, although by no means ignorant of life and manners, could not descend to familiarities with tuckers and commodes, with fans and hoop-petticoats. A scholar by profession and a writer from necessity, he loved to bring forward subjects so near and dear as the disappointments of authors—the dangers and miseries of literary eminence—anxieties of literature—contrariety of criticism—miseries of patronage—value of fame—causes of the contempt of the learned—prejudices and caprices of criticism—vanity of an author's expectations—meanness of dedication—necessity of literary courage; and all those other subjects which relate to authors and their connection with the public. Sometimes whole papers are devoted to what may be termed the personal concerns of men of literature; and incidental reflections are every-where interspersed for the instruction or caution of the same class.

‘When he treats of common life and manners, it has been observed that he gives to the lowest of his correspondents the same style and lofty periods; and it may also be noticed, that the ridicule he attempts is in some cases considerably heightened by this very want of accommodation of character. Yet it must be allowed that the levity and giddiness of coquets and fine ladies are expressed with great difficulty in the Johnsonian language. It has been objected also that even the names of his ladies have very little of the air either of court or city, as Zosima, Properantia, &c.—Every age seems to have its peculiar names of fiction. In the Spectator's time, the Damons and Phillises, the Amintors, Amandas and Cleoras, &c. were the representatives of every virtue, and every folly.—These were succeeded by the Philamonts, Tenderillas, Timoleons, Seomianthes, Pantheas, Adrastas and Bellimantes; names to which Mrs. Heywood gave currency in her Female Spectator; and from which at no great distance of time Dr. Johnson appears to have taken his Zephyrettas, Trypheruses, Nitellias, Misotheas, Vagarios and Flirtillas.’ Vol. xix. p. xli.

Of Johnson's humour our author gives some good specimens.

‘Instances might be multiplied in which common truths and common maxims are supported by an eloquence no-where else to be found; and in which the principles of human nature are explained with a fa-

cility and truth which could result only from what appears to have been the author's favourite study, the study of the heart. Yet this distinguishing characteristic of the Rambler, added to a style by no means familiar, may have rendered it a less agreeable companion to a very numerous class of readers than other works of the kind. It is certainly not a book for the uneducated part of the world, nor for those who, whatever their education, read only for their amusement. In the comparison of books with men, it may be said that the Rambler is one of those which are at first repulsive, but which grow upon us on a farther acquaintance. Accordingly those who have read it oftenest are most sensible of its excellence: it will not please at first sight, nor suit the gay who wish to be amused, nor the superficial who cannot command attention. It is to be studied as well as read; and the few objections that have been made to it would have probably been retracted, if the objectors had returned frequently to the work, and examined whether the author had preferred any claims which could not fairly be granted. It cannot be too often repeated that the Rambler is not a work to be hastily laid aside; and that they who from the apparent difficulties of style and manner have been led to study it attentively, have been amply rewarded by the discovery of new beauties; and have been ready to confess, what it would be now extremely difficult to disprove, that literature, as well as morals, owes the greatest obligations to this writer; and that since the work became popular, every thing in literature or morals, in history or dissertation, is better conceived, and better expressed, conceived with more novelty, and expressed with greater energy.' Vol. xix. p. xlvii.

Johnson's great defect was dejected melancholy: but this was a disease of which he was aware, and would check himself by adding some consolatory reflexions at the end of a gloomy paper, and reprove others where there was occasion to suppose the source of their complaints was affectation, and not real affliction. His charity was exemplary and singular. He received many objects into his own house; and bore all the discomfort which their peevishness could produce, from this noble reflexion—'If I dismiss them, who will take them in?'—His repulsive manners Mr. Chalmers excuses, by suggesting that it was only excited by obtrusive impertinence. To his friends, to those who approached him with an honest wish of improvement, he was gentle, conciliating, and instructive.

On the whole, this is an excellent tribute to the memory of Johnson, and rests his character and his fame on a more stable foundation, than his flatterers have hitherto afforded. In this preface, Mr. Chalmers seems to have caught some portion of his style; and, though all his prefaces are written with energy and elegance, this he seems to have laboured with particular attention. It is not an imitation of Johnson, but the style of a man fresh from his school, who has caught the general hue of the original; his own words will best explain our meaning.

\* The few laboured and perhaps pedantic sentences which occur,

have been selected and repeated with incessant malignity, but without the power of depreciation; and they who have thus found Johnson to be obscure and unintelligible, might with similar partiality celebrate Shakspeare only for his puns and his quibbles. Luckily, however, for the taste and improvement of the age, these objections are not very prevalent; and the general opinion, founded on actual observation, is, that although Dr. Johnson is not to be imitated with perfect success, yet the attempt to imitate him, where it has neither been servile nor artificial, has elevated the style of every species of literary composition. In every thing we perceive more vigour, more spirit, more elegance. He not only began a revolution in our language, but lived till it was almost completed.' Vol. xix. p. xl.

We had determined to have concluded the account of these prefaces in the present article: but as, on one side, the necessary variety of a monthly publication prevents us from enlarging as we could wish, so, on the other, the value of Mr. Chalmers's labours forbids us from passing them too cursorily.

*(To be continued.)*

ART. III. — *The Satires of Juvenal: by William Rhodes.*  
12mo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Rivingtons.

RE-ANIMATED by the pure breezes of antiquity, we must strive again to dissipate the contagion of false taste, and, from the atmosphere of classical literature, to dispel the noisome vapours raised by vernacular rhymers, whose translations and imitations offer only effeminate languor for elegance, and brutal coarseness for spirit.

The matchless remains of Greece and of Latium have been so long defiled by modern pollution, that readers of discernment, limited to their native dialect, and deceived in the medium through which they contemplate the Muse of a more celebrated era, have unreluctantly abandoned her with disappointed hopes.

Consciousness of long-neglected duty alone constrains us to re-visit Juvenal, and to demonstrate anew how successfully, in the nineteenth century, a magnificent original can be transmuted into a mean and disgusting spectre.

Our specimen from *these imitations*—selected with impartiality, and unaccompanied by remark—which introduces Mr. Rhodes to the public, we shall neither contrast with the 'Vanity of human Wishes' by Johnson, nor with the efforts of other imitators of the tenth satire.

' View every climate, from the rising sun,  
To that in which his daily task is done;  
How few you'll find from mists of error free,  
True good from evil can distinctly see!



Let reason's beams the dark horizon clear,  
Dispell'd is all our hope, and all our fear;  
No scheme's so bright a rig'rous test to bear,  
But brings at length "repentance in its rear."  
Oft have whole families in dust been laid,  
By things for which unwittingly they've pray'd:  
Both peace and war their noxious prayers produce,  
Some find their eloquence of mortal use.  
To strength corporeal some resign their breath,  
Whom overmuch exertion leads to death:  
But more whose joy is only to amass,  
And all of mod'rate fortunes far surpass;  
As the Leviathan in British seas  
Midst puny dolphins lords it at his ease.  
But when at length arrives the fatal day,  
A Nero or a Marat prowls for prey,  
Thy gardens, Seneca, the soldier spoils,  
And Orleans' palaces his footsteps soils.  
Live in a garret, travel not till late,  
Nor with you take the smallest bit of plate;  
For if you move with splendor, or with show,  
A bruised reed's enough to lay you low;  
The stake or pistol you will dread each night,  
An empty pocket makes a heart as light.

' What above all things, in our prayers we ask,  
Is, in unrivall'd opulence to bask.  
In earthen cups no latent poison fear,  
But when the golden goblet shines, 'tis near.  
Praise you the laughter of the Grecian sage  
Who ne'er stirr'd out but he indulg'd its rage?  
While from the other copious tears distill'd,  
With which one wonders whence his eyes were fill'd.  
The coarse broad grin might come from one of us,  
Which shook the sides of old Democritus;  
Although he saw throughout the neighb'ring towns,  
Nor thrones, nor maces, liveries, nor gowns.

' Had he but seen a mayor in gaudy state,  
Aping the wretched follies of the great,  
'Twixt heat and trappings when almost half stew'd,  
Plaster'd with dust, and with his sweat bedew'd;  
With sword unwieldy, big as any spit,  
A load, for which scarce any arm is fit;  
Its bearer, should his worship be elate,  
Sits by his side, to lower his mighty state.  
To this add doves and staves both white and red,  
And all the gewgaws of gilt gingerbread;  
Then comes a train of greater length than worth,  
Of liv'ries, tip-staves, beadles, and so forth,  
And longer still of citizens from huts,  
Whose friendship's price is buried in their guts.  
Without all this he found in every street  
Something ridiculous in all he met;

His shrewdness shews, that foggy Holland's fen  
 In spite of climate may produce great men,  
 To mock our tears or joys he never fear'd,  
 And sometimes ev'n at Fortune's self he jeer'd.

' Useless, or worse then, are the things we see,  
 For which so oft we bend the suppliant knee.  
 Some fall beneath malignant envy's stroke,  
 By genealogies long-winded broke;  
 Down come their statues and triumphant cars,  
 And all the trophies of their glorious wars;  
 The horse's legs, and ev'ry chariot wheel,  
 The axe's vengeance is condemn'd to feel.  
 And now the flame consumes the great man's head,  
 So oft before with adoration fed;  
 Then does this face, the second upon earth,  
 To pots and pans and utensils give birth.  
 Let us this day thanksgivings make at church,  
 Let us this night illuminate with torch;  
 To-day the varlet's on a hurdle dragg'd,  
 And wretched people are no longer gagged.  
 "Do but observe the rascal's ugly phyzz;  
 I ne'er, believe me, lik'd or him or his.  
 But tell me, pray, the nature of the charge,  
 The judges, witnesses, and all at large."  
 No need of them, a shorter scheme prevails,  
 A long and secret letter from Versailles.  
 "'Tis well; I ask no more, but long to know  
 What all this while the mob of Frenchmen do."  
 On Fortune's side is rang'd the supple Gaul,  
 And with rude insults aggravates his fall;  
 With equal levity triumphant sings  
 O'er exil'd nobles, or o'er slaughter'd kings.  
 The people now to nothing give their mind,  
 Since venal suffrages no market find;  
 But soup and puppet-shows, the last resort  
 Of those who formerly controll'd the court.  
 "Large is the number of those doom'd to budge,  
 If we by wheels and gallowses may judge.  
 Some of our friends are almost dead with fear,  
 Lest from the scrape they should not get off clear.  
 But let us hasten, ere 'tis yet too late,  
 And trample on this victim of the state:  
 But let's have witnesses, lest we be tried,  
 For all suspicion may be thus defied."  
 Then thus the mob in moralizing strain:  
 "Who'd rise like him but to fall down again?  
 For this who'd swagger in the chair of state,  
 Or foremost be among the guilty great;  
 A prince's guardian, or a man of parts,  
 In conjuration vers'd, or magic arts,  
 Master of horse, or, raised above his peers,  
 In camp command a corps of volunteers?"

Why not? for sweet's the power of life and death,  
 Tho' not inclin'd to stop one wretch's breath."  
 The cup of joy so copious ne'er is found,  
 But that of sorrow will still more abound.  
 Better to be some village market's clerk,  
 Than in high life the object of remark,  
 O'er weights and measures boast despotic sway,  
 And long-rob'd pomp of office there display.  
 This mighty man, therefore, 'twill be confess'd,  
 Knew not wherein he could be truly blest;  
 For when he sought in wealth all bounds to pass,  
 And soar on honour's unsubstantial gas,  
 To fortune's bitterness he added gall,  
 And did but gain an aggravated fall.  
 What laid your Cæsars and your Pompeys low,  
 Who us'd the Romans worse than any foe?  
 What, but the lust of ruling by their nod?  
 At once accorded and aveng'd by God.  
 Few tyrants ever to the realms below  
 By mere decay or bloodless exits go.'

Rhodes. Sat. X. p. 243—251.

We have been desirous to exhibit Mr. Rhodes advantageously, and have therefore given an extended specimen of his abilities, which we submit entirely to the judgement of our readers.

The unpleasing duties of our own department remain to be exercised.

Before the merits of a writer are examined, candour requires that his motives and pretensions should be considered without prejudice or partiality.

'Choice,' Mr. Rhodes assures us, 'had no share whatever in the origination of this design.'

'Having, without any other purpose than that of self-exercitation and amusement, turned a few lines of him [*Juvenal*], when accidentally lying on my table, I was afterwards induced, by my love of occupation, and an examination of the translation which bears the name of Dryden, which I then thought had been the only one, to complete the whole.'

Mr. Rhodes, with becoming modesty, proceeds to express the correct opinion, that a *first appearance* before the public in print is *no light matter*; which we cannot reconcile with his incautious assertion, that 'his little bark is launched with *as little concern* as such a trifle may naturally be supposed to excite.'

If this imitator *could* estimate as trivial an important and difficult enterprise, his display of reading and literary research, in a laboured exarination of the merits of Juvenal, appears to us neither consistent nor judicious.

His sentiments of the original are sufficiently elevated. In



his preface and introductions to the various satires, aided by the illustrious Gibbon, he has described the characteristic beauties of Juvenal, his ardent imagination, dignified flow of numbers, and the 'pure and high-toned satire' which this haughty reformer 'fulminates from the most sublime heights.'

'To give the English reader an adequate idea of the meaning of Juvenal—to suppress his impurities—neither to add nor to retrench, but to say what the author says—to render all his sentiments, and to present his sense with strong and familiar imagery'—are the avowed intentions of Mr. Rhodes.

'I have anachronismatically given him a sort of posthumous peep into futurity.—(The trans-Tweedish reader may call it second sight.)—I have *made him speak* as I suppose he would now, not only to a modern reader, but to a modern English reader: I have, therefore, not merely translated him, but in some degree *modernised*, and even NATURALISED him.'

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'I have subjoined such similar passages from ancients and moderns, as occurred to my reading'—'tracing the genealogy of sentiment.'

Such is the plan of Mr. Rhodes. We admit his maxim, that 'provided the author be *fairly* exhibited, it matters little what that exhibition be called.' How fairly *he* has exhibited Juvenal, our readers have in part observed for themselves. *We* shall extend our views, consider generally the merits of Mr. Rhodes, and compare passages from Juvenal—cursorily selected—with his imitations, and with the attempts of a few other 'doers into English.' We must not, however, omit to remark, that in his preface the imitator laudably avows that he 'would rather remain for ever in his present obscurity,' and that Juvenal should be sunk in everlasting oblivion, than that there should be found any thing in this book capable of perverting the principles or morals of such as are not yet past the age or power of ductility.' We give ample credit to his declaration, and applaud his motives: but to translate Juvenal with tolerable fidelity, preserving *this* sentiment, gigantic talents must be directed by keen discernment. Passages occur in these imitations, unavoidable, perhaps, by a translator, and improper to be revealed by us, which might show that a delicate reserve has not been uniformly supported. Direct allusions, which excite youthful curiosity, and familiarise the mind to immodest images, may not immediately *pervert* morals, but can scarcely be considered as innoxious.

Of an author whose writings unveil such dreadful profligacies, many parts, useful to history, and intrinsically curious, should be confined to the original language. *Entire* translation must appear to every *moralist* an enterprise more arduous than discreet.



We leave this subject, to prosecute our *literary* inquiries.

In the conduct of his imitations, Mr. Rhodes passes, without ceremony, from the *classic* Tyber to the *trading* Thames, from 'ancient Rome to modern London.'

'The stubborn matter-of-fact man, who will not bend, may consider either the book or himself, which he chooses, as infected with an immedicable malady.'

We fear we must consider *ourselves* 'immedicable.' We disapprove this 'mixt medley,' these 'anachronismatical and post-humous peeps.' No increased effect, but an obvious loss of dignity arises from *mingling* the history, characters, and allusions, of ancient times with those of the passing hour. MARS, VENUS, and the prostituted JULIA, are neither *most harmoniously* associated with LORD AUCKLAND and his '*still-born*' *adultery-bill*, nor do the works of GROTIUS and PUFFENDORF seem admissible authorities to support the imperial rights of DOMITIAN!—'For classic personages, 'MOTLEY's' NOT 'the only wear.'—Johnson, an imitator exclusively inspired by the spirit of Juvenal, avoiding this admixture, wisely adopts a *general substitution* of modern characters and allusions. Of Johnson, Mr. Rhodes expresses his admiration, but pursues not the example.

In its versification, this work is usually so low, careless, incorrect, and verbosely languid, that we doubt

'Whether' we 'should baptise it verse or prose.'

The poet is not *nice* in his rhymes, nor scrupulous in his metre. A monosyllable occasionally supplies either *one* or *two* feet of the verse, as indolence requires. We cannot admit many examples of these defects, since our article must necessarily be rendered prolix, by the comparative extracts to be produced. We shall, however, as is our custom, *prove* our assertion.

'He'll straightway shiver, and his shoulders shrug,

Order a FIRE, or put on his rug.

*If in like manner, you complain of fire,*

He quickly adds, Good God! how I perspire!

*By this time, therefore, you must plainly see,' &c. &c.*

Rhodes. Sat. III. p. 73.

'Above the difference of the wine I blame;

*Now by the water I must do the same.'*

S. V. p. 110.

'Then no good reason is for marriage LEFT

But bride-cakes may for invalids be KEPT!'

S. VI. p. 143.

'She'll not attend her husband *out, or home,*

*If Mr. Magic* should forbid to roam.'

S. VI. p. 169.

' No hour for food or med'cine can she find,  
Like that which Mr. Gipsy shall appoint.' S. VI. p. 169.

' Cups he'll present from stalls of crock'ry brought,  
Which for a FEW halfpence have been bought.' S. XI. p. 290.

The notes of Mr. Rhodes, seldom long, are often flippant, sometimes acute and judicious. The comparisons from ancient and modern authors are amusing.

We must now produce our *marked* parallels of translation.

The translators of the seventeenth century often equal those of our own era, in tame repetition and prosaic inelegance; yet superior conciseness distinguishes Stapylton and Holyday, while Dryden, though diffuse, excels in metrical suavity.—We shall compare them, by a passage accidentally occurring, and of no peculiar attraction.

' ——— perierunt tempora longi  
Servitii. Nusquam minor est iactura clientis.  
Quod porro officium, ne nobis blandiar, aut quod  
Pauperis hic meritum?' Juv. III. v. 124—127.

' No where dependants sooner are dismiss'd,  
Or driv'n abroad, to go where'er they list.  
What can the poor then here look forward to?  
Or without flatt'ry, what is here their due?'  
Rhodes. (A. D. 1801) Sat. III. v. 176—179.

' Our long, long slavery *thought upon* no more.  
'Tis but a client lost,—and that, we find,  
Sits wondrous lightly on a patron's mind;  
And light indeed it is: for, to be plain,  
What merit can a poor dependant gain  
By his best services?'  
Gifford's Translat. (A. D. 1802) III. 190—195.

—' Thus my long service is rewarded!  
A client's loss is no where less regarded!  
Indeed, what's here a poor man's toil or pay?'  
Holyday's Translat. (A. D. 1673) III. 145—147.

' ——— Good night to all  
My tedious service,—out a door I'm hurl'd,—  
A client's the least loss in all the world.  
Indeed how can poor people hope reward?'  
Stapylton's Translat. (A. D. 1673) III. 148—151.

' In vain forgotten services I boast,  
My long dependence in an hour is lost.  
Look round the world, what country will appear,  
Where friends are left with greater ease than here?  
At Rome (nor think me partial to the poor)  
All offices of ours are out of door.'  
Dryden's Translat. (A. D. 1692) III. 221—226.

We are unable to allot sufficient space for parallelisms so numerous, and, as we proceed, must be satisfied to confront the original satirist with this imitator and the last translator. *Both endeavour to 'make him speak as he would have spoken to an English reader;'* and since chance has furnished us with a few examples, from the speeches which *they* have prepared for him, of *dignified sarcasm, graceful familiarity, and simple elegance*, we are enabled to convince our readers how completely they have succeeded in NATURALISING JUVENAL.

'Finge tamen gladios inde, atque hinc pulpita pone:  
Quid satius? Mortem sic quisquam exhorruit, ut sit  
Zelotypus Thymeles, stupidi conlega Corinthi?'

Juv. VIII. v. 195—197.

'But grant that on this hand there is the stage,  
On that, the gallows; which would one engage?  
Is any one so much in love with life,  
To be the victim of a jealous wife,  
Herself a singer and adúlteress too?  
Or thro' dull parts with stupid colleagues go?'

Rhodes VIII. 282—287.

'But grant the worst: suppose the scaffold here,  
And there the stage; on which wouldst thou appear?  
The first: for death I never so *did* dread,  
As, in a stupid scene, to *whine for bread*;  
*Squat on my hams*, in some blind nook to sit,  
And watch my mistress, in a jealous fit.'

Gifford VIII. 295—300.

'——Jam poscit aquam, jam frivola transfert  
Ucalegon: tabulata tibi jam tertia fumant:  
Tu nescis.'

Juv. III. 198—200.

'Lo! poor Ucalegon his goods moves out,  
And cries aloud for water *all about*.  
Tho' the first story of your dwelling glow,  
You are too distant *any thing to know*.'

Rhodes III. 280—283.

'The neighbours cry  
For 'water!' and, in wild confusion, fly  
*With what they can*:—meantime the flames aspire,  
And the third floor is wrapt in smoke and fire,  
Ere thou art well awake: *UF HO!*'

Gifford III. 297—301.

'Scilicet et morbis, et debilitate carebis,  
Et luctum et curam effugies, et tempora vitæ  
Longa tibi post hæc fato meliore dabuntur.'

Juv. XIV. 156—158.



' You, to be sure, disease will not come NEAR,  
Or grief, or pain, debility or CARE.  
These you'll avoid, and with a happier fate  
*Henceforward you will live both long and great.'*

Rhodes XIV. 237—239.

' 'TIS WELL ! Disease, FORSOOTH, thy couch will flee,  
And sorrow, and care ; *yes, thou, BE SURE, wilt see*  
Long years of happiness, &c.'

Gifford XIV. 219—221.

' — Lanatis animalibus abstinet omnis  
Mensa. Nefas illic fetum jugulare capellae :  
Carnibus humanis vesci licet.'

Juv. XV. 11—13.

' With meat once cover'd with a woolly hide,  
*None* of their tables *ever* is supplied ;  
On no account you there must slay a lamb,  
But *may, and welcome, eat a human ham.'*

Rhodes XV. 17—20.

' From mutton they abstain, and *think it ill,*  
The blood of *lambkins* or of kids to spill ;  
But human flesh—O ! *that* is lawful fare,  
*And you may eat it without scandal there.'*

Gifford XV. 15—18.

Juvenal, usually lofty and dignified, sometimes descends to  
sarcastic and familiar diction. On these occasions, his imitators,  
emulating his vulgarisms, are extravagantly hyperbolic.

We must be pardoned if our extracts excite a momentary  
nausea.

' — Unde venis ? exclamat : *cujus aceto,*  
*Cujus conche tumes ? quis tecum sectile porrum*  
*Sutor, et elixi vervecis labra comedit ?*  
*Nil mihi respondes ? Aut dic, aut adcipe calcem.'*

Juv. III. 292—295.

' Whence come you ? cries he, *and pray tell beside,*  
*Whose grouts and furmity have swell'd your hide ?*  
*What cobbler with you has divided leeks,*  
*Or of a boil'd sheep's-head has pick'd the cheeks ?*  
*What ! don't you answer ? Either do it quick,*  
*Or else receive, depend upon't, a kick.'*

Rhodes III. 422—427.

' Whose leeks, he cries, have swell'd your *bloated maw ?*  
*Where did you, ROGUE, to-night your bean-husks gnaw ?*  
*And with what cobbler club, to wag your cheeks*  
*On dainty sheeps-head porridge, and chopp'd leeks ?*  
*What ! no reply ? speak, or be sure to feel*  
*The immediate greeting of my wrathful heel.'*

Gifford III. 442—447.

‘ —Nam Sergiolus jam radere guttur  
Cooperat.’

Juv. VI. 105—106.

‘ The gladiator’s now advanced in years.’

Rhodes VI. 151.

‘ O the sweet Sergy !—NOTE IT, PRITHEE, NOTE —  
Had LONG BEGUN to scrub his *oristly* throat.’

Gifford VI. 155—156.

‘ Inter carnifices, et fabros sandapilarum,  
Et resupinati cessantia tympana Galli.’

Juv. VIII. 175—176.

‘ With executioners and fugitives,  
And with who-e’er on mean employments lives ;  
With French musicians, *lying on their backs*,  
Whose idle instrument its music *lacks*.’

Rhodes VIII. 252—255.

‘ Hangmen contractors “ for base biers ” and graves,  
And Cybele’s priests outstretched, A PRECIOUS PACK !  
Midst their loose drums, and SNORING on their back.’

Gifford VIII. 260—262.

How would Boileau and Johnson have derided, in this *Tra-vestie* of ‘ *resupinati cessantia tympana Galli*,’ the *spirited* imitation of *our* naturalisers !

The Italian translator has copied this striking picture with superior fidelity :

‘ E co’ fabbri di bare, i più meschini,  
E con quei molli sacerdoti Galli,  
Che dopo i loro furiosi balli  
GIACCION, DEPOSTI I TIMPANI, SUPINI.’

‘ The *fantastical* Montesquieu’—we are instructed by Mr. Rhodes—‘ has said in his political romance, that if the English were to write satires, they would MAKE BLOODY WORK OF it !’ In the vulgar sense of this phrase, the opinion of Montesquieu, applied to many of our countrymen who *translate* satires, may not be found *fantastical*.

Such ‘ *a precious pack*’ our literature ‘ *lacks*’ not ; but would leave, unmolested, ‘ *snoring on their backs*.’

Could diction thus impure originate *integro fonte* ? Or, through the sullied stream of former imitators, have our modern adventurers traced their way to the ancient source, and rendered its waters more turbid by redoubled agitation ?

‘ Dic tibi, qui sis,  
Orator vehemens, an Curtius et Matho buccae.  
Noscenda est mensura sui, spectandaque rebus  
In summis minimisque.’

Juv. XI. 33—36.

' Consult your pow'rs, and to yourself attend ;  
Whether an Erskine, or not doom'd to rise,  
*Of your own mouth pray measure well the size.*'

Rhodes XI. 40—42.

' KNOCK at thy breast ; examine well and see,  
First what and who thou art : search if thou be  
An orator of force, of skill profound,  
Or a mere Matho, emptiness and sound ?  
Yes, know thyself ; in great concerns and small,  
Let this be all thy care, *for this is all—*

Gifford XI. 51—56.

If our readers conjecture, that to excite *their* curiosity, or gratify *our own* spleen, we have selected the RAREST among these extraneous productions, we can assure them, with confidence, that specimens of superior value, sufficient to furnish the largest collections, ABOUND in these mines of vulgarity.

From the example of contrasted *excellence* which has terminated our extracts, we must compassionately repeat a hint, of which the *imitator* may avail himself, before he again attempts to rival a classic satirist :

' *Of YOUR OWN mouth pray measure well the size !*'

To the translator, ere he falls, '*innumerable telis gravis,*' we recommend his own advice :

' KNOCK AT THY BREAST, EXAMINE WELL, AND SEE !'

' It is,' as Mr. Rhodes remarks, '*a difficult thing to give a new air to what is antiquated, splendor to what is tarnished, and light to what is dark.*'

No man is *obliged* to publish. Appearing in print, an author voluntarily submits himself to be judged by every individual. The lash of indignant criticism neither boisterous railing can avert, nor frivolous defiance suspend.

The imitations of Mr. Rhodes, unclassical as the translations of Mr. Gifford, may be accurately characterised in the words of a foreign critic. They exhibit '*la facilité de faire, et la paresse de bien faire, la satieté du beau, et le goût du bizarre.*'

Of ancient classics, deservedly revered, our own literature requires that the reputation should be preserved unsullied. To overlook venial errors, and cherish timidity by a generous indulgence, are the *peaceful* duties of criticism. *Severer* service may be demanded. When the fortress of Taste is threatened by *l'emerity*, or stormed by Barbarism, we must be found ready, on the ramparts, to daunt the FORLORN HOPE of savage assailants.



ART. IV.—*A Treatise on febrile Diseases, including intermitting, remitting, and continued Fevers; eruptive Fevers; Inflammations; Hemorrhagies; and the Profluvia; in which an Attempt is made to present, at one View, whatever, in the present State of Medicine, it is requisite for the Physician to know respecting the Symptoms, Causes, and Cure of those Diseases.* By A. Philips Wilson, M.D. F.R.S. Ed. &c. Vols. II. and III. 8vo. 18s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

THE first volume of this work, published in 1799, was reviewed in our 29th volume, p. 383, when we spoke favourably of the author's talents and industry, though we thought him, on the whole, too diffuse; not sufficiently discriminating in those parts where his labour might be shortened by a comprehensive abstract, or those in which minute detail was more appropriate. His authorities, also, were not pointed out with sufficient clearness in the references.

In the volumes before us, these errors are not materially corrected: indeed, the form of the work was already cast; and, to preserve uniformity, no very considerable change could have been made. The authorities are usually unexceptionable; but we still perceive the same want of minuteness in the references, particularly in the first part of the volume. Yet, perhaps, all the difficulty might have been avoided, by having given the titles of the works quoted, with the editions employed, at the end.

The third volume contains the varieties of continued fever, including the petechial, the miliary, the aphthous, the vesicular (pemphigus), and the erysipelatous; exanthemata, comprising small-pox (including some remarks on cow-pox), chicken-pox, measles, scarlatina, plague, and nettle-rash. These are subjects generally known; and it is not our author's object to pursue novelties: he wishes only to teach the pupil what experience and observation have hitherto ascertained.

As petechiæ are generally a symptom, little is said of petechial fever. Miliary fever is treated at great length; and, though we find much discussion relative to the question, whether it be an idiopathic disease, or a symptom only, yet there is no comprehensive view of the question. We think we have seen it wholly unconnected with warm regimen. Debilitating discharges, moist situations, &c. are properly considered as predisposing causes alone.

Aphthæ are described at length; and an inquiry, perhaps too extensive, is introduced respecting their arising from a suppressed eruption of miliaria. Of this there is little evidence: but the disease is certainly connected with the state of the stomach

and bowels, and these require the principal attention. The treatment is detailed at length: but the directions are tediously and unnecessarily minute. The account, also, of pemphigus is by far too extensive for a disease so very uncommon.

Erysipelas is a complaint of more importance, but the account of this also is too prolix. A useless disquisition is inserted, with respect to the distinction between erysipelas and erythema. The latter is the eruption only, often induced by accidental and local causes; the former, erythema attended with peculiar fever. Thus we have sometimes pustules, like the small-pox, scattered in different parts of the body: but the variola is a distinct fever, with such pustules appearing at a given period. We have seen miliaria, we think, both contagious and epidemic. The treatment is detailed with sufficient accuracy, though the author does not seem to have employed the camphor, as he does not mention it: it is highly serviceable in erysipelas.

The first disease of the order exanthemata is the small pox, the description and treatment of which occupy nearly two hundred pages. We trust that, in twenty years, it will be no longer known. Of the chicken-pox, we need say little; and the account is short. The measles are considered at greater length; and the putrid measles, which our author styles the irregular, are described very fully, and well distinguished from the regular species.

‘ From what has been said it appears, that the regular and irregular measles differ chiefly in the four following circumstances.

‘ 1. All the symptoms, whether febrile or catarrhal, are generally more violent in the irregular, than in the regular, measles.

‘ 2. The fever in the former always shews a tendency to typhus.

‘ 3. In the regular measles, the affection of the fauces always resembles that produced by cold; in the irregular, the fauces are frequently livid, and often assume completely the appearance of the cynanche maligna.

‘ 4. The duration of the different stages of the irregular measles is more uncertain. The eruptive fever, as well as the eruption, in regular measles continue for a certain length of time, at least never much exceed, or fall short of, it. In the irregular measles, the course both of the one and the other is sometimes very rapid, at other times very lingering.

‘ The irregular measles might therefore be divided into two varieties: that in which the symptoms run high and are soon terminated; and that in which they are less violent and longer protracted; and there is the more room for such a division, as the one of these varieties has been epidemic without the other making its appearance. The same epidemic however often assumes both forms.’ Vol. ii. p. 410.

The distinction should be well kept in view, and the reigning epidemic carefully noticed, when measles begin to appear; for the one requires bleeding, the other bark. The only unequivocal

cal remedy is cathartics: but, in the putrid measles, large evacuation by stool should be avoided.

Whether scarlatina and malignant sore-throat be distinct diseases, the author means, at a future period, to consider. We may now observe, that they are truly distinct, though sometimes combined. The affection of the throat, without the eruption, is not uncommon; and we have seen many epidemics of scarlet fever without cynanche. When the inflammation of the throat extends to the trachea, symptoms resembling croup are produced, which should be carefully distinguished: it is the cynanche trachealis of authors. Delirium is not represented to be so common an attendant of scarlet fever as we have found it; and camphor is not mentioned as a remedy. It has not happened to us to see a scarlet fever that required bleeding.

The author treats fully of the plague, and his apology is almost prophetic.

‘ Although few British physicians have occasion to practise in the plague, the propriety of being acquainted with a disease, which has demanded so much attention, and bears so strong an analogy to complaints which every day fall under their care, is too apparent to require any comment. Besides, we cannot foresee in what circumstances we may be placed; and for a physician to betray ignorance of the plague would be unpardonable.’ Vol. ii. p. 475.

The account is full and accurate, drawn from the best sources then in our author's hands. We may, probably, soon have fuller descriptions.

The third volume is on inflammations, including all the diseases of this class, except the cynanche trachealis. This is omitted to make room for the experiments, on which the observations on urinary depositions, in febrile diseases, were founded. It was injudicious to separate, in this way, a single species; and, had the Appendix been printed in a smaller character, the bulk of the volume would not have been enlarged.

In the threshold, our author feels a difficulty, that needed not to have detained him a moment; and it introduces a discussion on a pimple, and a stain or efflorescence. He can find them in no system of nosology; and, indeed, they should be in none; for, the moment they become diseases, they are to be arranged under phlegmon and erythema. The pimple differs only in its seat, which is the subcutaneous glands.

The chief subject in the introduction to the second part, is inflammation, with its causes. Inflammation he considers, though, perhaps, for insufficient reasons, as an effort of the system to remove an offending cause, and in this respect to resemble coughing and sneezing; but, in inflammation, we can scarcely, in any instance, see the offending cause: nor can we clearly discern its effect in removing such a cause; except it be a mechanically irritating substance.



Dr. Wilson next considers the usual causes to which inflammation has been attributed by different authors. These are, *lentor*, *error loci*, *spasm*, and *increased action*. In the three former there is necessarily *obstruction*; but, he supposes that *obstruction* does not exist. We think the same, yet do not draw this conclusion from his experiment, which is indecisive, but from an obvious fact, that the veins leading *from* an inflamed part are usually *turgid*. After some disquisitions respecting the balance of arterial action, and of the *vis a tergo*, not very clearly conveyed, he shows, that inflammation of the smaller arteries, which are its seat, consists in a dilation, and, consequently, a diminished action of these vessels, with an increased action of the larger arteries behind. The red blood is, therefore, accumulated in these, and in the adjoining smaller (usually colourless) arteries, in which it undergoes the common changes into the deeper coloured, venal, blood; and occasionally exudes into the adjacent cellular membrane. It does not appear, that, according to this system, the circulation is stopped, except in those extreme cases which are followed by mortification; but it is so far impeded, as to differ very little, perhaps in degree only, from obstruction; and, when remedies are employed to discuss, as it is called, inflammation, they are seen to operate by increasing the action of the vessels, and accelerating the motion of the contained fluids. The whole is proved from arguments, microscopic observations, and pathologic inquiries. It accords very well with the knowledge we have acquired, by observing the causes and progress of inflammations; and is consistent with their terminations, and the effects of remedies. In short, we think it a very probable theory of a disease which has occasioned so much pathologic disquisition. We cannot follow the arguments, the explanation of the symptoms, nor the consequences; and, indeed, would not deprive the author of his purchasers. We shall only remark, that the observations on purulent matter, its appearance, and distinctions, are full and valuable.

The treatment of inflammation follows, which, from this theory, may be easily understood. The author depends much on the fashionable—we speak it not degradingly, for we think it the useful—practice of topical bleeding. The other febrile diseases, *viz.* hæmorrhages and profluvia, depend on the same principles. There are some nosologic difficulties, which will not be resolved till some new system is adopted. Fever will not always afford even a *specific* distinction in a truly natural system. The species of diseases, as well as of minerals, have, however, never been clearly ascertained.

The symptoms of phlegmasiæ are next noticed; and, in these, the author seems to reason a little inaccurately. When inflammation supervenes on fever, our author would consider it

as a combination ; but, in the greater number of instances, the fever begins before the local affection, and the whole disease runs its course as if the commencement was simultaneous. The distinction, therefore, is of little importance ; and the treatment is the same, whether the disease be single or complicated. Nor do we think that much inaccuracy has resulted from the plan hitherto adopted ; for we cannot remove the local inflammation without general remedies, or the contrary. We are well aware of the cause that induced Dr. Cullen to mention fever as the primary symptom : it was from nosological considerations ; but, in active hæmorrhages, at least, it was not an error.

With respect to the treatment of phlegmasiæ, our author seems to lean towards more active general bleedings than will be proper in large towns, and in a more southern climate. He thinks, too, that a large blister, *near* the part, will be equally or more efficacious than a small one *over* it. This he advises, to leave room for leeches or topical applications. We think, however, that, in proportion as the blister is removed, its power is lessened ; and that leeches, at a *little* distance, if more numerous, are equally effectual. We have, however, seldom found, if the blister rise properly, and the discharges from the glands can be procured, that any further evacuation has been requisite. The other parts of the treatment are detailed with sufficient propriety and accuracy.

The particular inflammations, described in this volume, are phlegmon, erysipelas, phrenitis, ophthalmia, otitis, and odontalgia, and cynanche, omitting, as we have said, the last species.

Under the head of erysipelas, our author speaks of the use of opium in inflammatory cases. We shall transcribe his opinions, adding a few remarks.

‘ The indication in all the phlegmasiæ, we have seen, is to restore the proper balance of power between the vessels of the inflamed part and the *vis a tergo*. Now as in active inflammation, the *vis a tergo* is generally too powerful, especially if resolution is the termination we have in view, and as opium, for some time after it is received into the system, increases the force of the circulation, we should, *a priori*, believe, that in most cases of the phlegmasiæ it would be found pernicious. But as the *vis a tergo*, on the other hand, is often in a great measure supported by the pain and irritation of the local affection, opium, by allaying these, might even be the means of diminishing the *vis a tergo*. It appears from these observations, then, that the effects of opium in the phlegmasiæ are most to be dreaded where the *vis a tergo*, which is best measured by the hardness of the pulse, is, *cet. paribus*, greatest, and most benefit is to be expected from this medicine where the pain and irritation are proportionably most considerable. At the commencement of the phlegmasiæ, before the mass of blood has been lessened, the same cause will produce a greater increase

of the *vis a tergo*, we may attempt allaying them at the risk of some temporary increase of the *vis a tergo*.

'If we examine the result of experience in this part of the treatment, we shall find it coinciding with these observations. At the commencement of the phlegmasiæ before evacuations have been made, opium is found hurtful, but after we have reduced the *vis a tergo*, if the pain and irritation still remain considerable, it is generally attended with advantage to allay them by anodynes cautiously administered. I have repeatedly known them employed in this way with advantage, and, from what I have observed, I cannot help warmly dissenting from those who would strike opiates from the catalogue of medicines in the phlegmasiæ, or only employ them to procure sleep after almost every symptom has disappeared. It would appear, I think, that the use of opium may with much advantage be greatly extended in the practice both of medicine and surgery.' Vol. iii. p. 199.

In some of these points we must differ from Dr. Wilson. We have not found the first effects of opium so stimulant, nor the latter so sedative. The pain is not so much increased at first, nor the tension so considerably relieved at last, as is represented: the inconvenience is trifling; the relief transitory. One considerable injury is overlooked, *viz.* checking the excretory discharges. This, in inflammation of the lungs and bowels, is a serious one; and, in the head, the peculiar effect of opium on the brain renders it a precarious remedy. In short, the advantages of opium are such as require a master's hand to give it without danger, or to supply, at once, the remedy for the inconveniences it may occasion. We witnessed once an epidemic peripneumony, where, about the fourth day, diarrhœa, which checked the expectoration, and sunk the strength, usually came on. No astringent, but opium, was powerful enough to stop it; but the most active expectorants were often necessary to restore the discharge. Let the inexperienced practitioner beware of this Herculean remedy; for, if misapplied, it is truly dangerous. We may just add also a caution respecting bleeding in erysipelas. We know it will succeed in the northern climates, and in the country; but, even when the head is affected, and the delirium most violent, it is a precarious remedy in large cities.

The phrenitis and ophthalmia are described at some length: the account of the latter is rather tediously extensive, but, on the whole, very satisfactory. From our experience in Egypt, we now know that ophthalmia may be epidemic and contagious. May not the line in Ovid

Dum spectant læsos oculi, læduntur et ipsi,

allude to squinting, which is well known to be infectious? and we believe *læsi oculi* is the term appropriated to this disease. In phrenitis, we have found camphor with opium, in many cases, very useful. In the account of the common diseases, otitis and odontalgia, nothing very interesting occurs.



The species of cynanche, treated of in this volume, are the tonsillaris, maligna, and parotidæa. In the *C. tonsillaris*, the repeated, slow swallowing of slightly sweetened vinegar, constantly repeated, for example, during the greater part of an hour, has often been highly useful. When suffocation is threatened, and bronchocele necessary, a very small trocar, in one instance, has been employed with effect; first dividing the skin, that the pressure required may not be too great. Two advantages result—the one, securing any blood from falling into the trachea, the other the immediate relief obtained. When swallowing has been impossible in the *C. maligna*, we once preserved a child for five days, by nourishing clysters, alternating those of strong broths, and of decoction of bark, with an equal part of Port wine; and immersing him night and morning in a semicupium of decoction of equal parts of Peruvian and oak bark. He recovered most completely; but, in the whole time, he did not swallow a single atom, either solid or fluid. Our author's account of cynanche is very full and accurate, though too extensive, on some points of less importance, *viz.* medicines *not* adapted to the complaint. A remedy, similar to the capsicum, mentioned in this volume, we employed twenty years ago, and have continued it with success, *viz.* constantly masticating two or three pepper corns. We have generally added powdered pepper to our gargles, which we think is sometimes left on the fauces with advantage. The contrayerva also is a useful addition to the bark in gargles, but not mentioned by the author. One inconvenience, which Dr. Wilson has not noticed, we may add; *viz.* from the too liberal use of cordials and astringents, we have found inflammatory sore throat, rapidly terminating in abscess, introduced. On the *C. parotidæa*, we find no particular remark to claim our attention.

The Appendix consists, as we have said, of an experimental inquiry into the circumstances influencing the urinary depositions, which appear in febrile diseases. These experiments were first published in 1792; and were made with a view to determine the circumstances which give a predisposition to urinary gravel.

We shall not follow the detail minutely. It appears that animal food will produce acidity, and the discharge of lithic acid by urine, provided indigestion, or any febrile state, prevent the discharge of perspirable matter; but that acids will not increase the quantity of lithic acid, if the skin continue moist. In general, by increasing the excretion by the skin, the tendency of the urine to deposit lithic acid is lessened. On the contrary, acidity of the primæ viæ will increase this tendency. On the whole, little is added to our knowledge by these experiments; and the nature of the lithic acid, as well as of the

cream-coloured sediment, is now better understood, and renders the present experiments less conclusive.

Some remarks on febrile anorexia conclude the volume. From these, it seems probable that the presence of the gastric juice produces hunger; and its absence is, at least, one cause of dyspepsia. Some modification of this opinion will, perhaps, come nearer the truth; but our article has been extended too far to allow us to enlarge on it.

ART. V.—*The Political and Confidential Correspondence of Lewis the Sixteenth; with Observations on each Letter. By Helen Maria Williams. 3 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 1s. Boards. Robinsons. 1803.*

THESE volumes appear to be fortunately timed in their publication: for every event which tends to render the present possessor of the French throne an object of public hatred and disgust, must necessarily recall the memory of the past with feelings of a livelier interest and regret. Each letter is first published in the original French; it is then followed by an English version; and, as noticed in the title-page, the editor afterwards adds her own observations. As to the letters themselves, they bear so many intrinsic marks of authenticity, that they leave little room for the suspicion of spuriousness; and yet, so often has the spectaclled and recluse critic, as well as the man of the world, been imposed upon by *confidential correspondences*, that we have scarcely been able to shake off all scepticism from our hearts. Why has not miss Williams openly informed us of the means by which the autographs fell into her hands, or, at least, into the hands of the French editors, her friends, who, while she was preparing them for publication in England, were at the same time preparing them for publication in France? The private papers of the unfortunate Lewis were, unquestionably, seized by order of the national assembly; and although we have every reason to suppose, from the testimony of M.M. Clery and Bertrand de Moleville, that he had purposely destroyed many of his most important archives anterior to such seizure; yet this may account for the possession, by the republic, of the originals of a variety of letters addressed to him by his friends: but, unless we imagine that he always took copies of his own letters—a conception which we can scarcely indulge with respect to many of those now presented—we are still at as great a loss as ever to account for the mode by which the latter were obtained, scattered as they have been, from the dispersion of the persons to whom they were addressed, throughout almost every country of Europe. This collection is said to be taken from an *intended*

French edition, prepared and digested by persons strongly attached to the royal cause.

‘ It was the intention of the king’s friends to have published those papers in two volumes. The first contained simply his letters, and were destined “*à nous montrer Louis XVI homme privé,*” to present the private character of the king. The second volume contained all that could portray him, “*comme homme public,*” as a public character; and consisted of his discourses, memorials, observations, writings, the analysis of a few of his works; “all which objects, united, were to present us the last king of France, as a prince really enlightened, made to govern men in the solitude of the cabinet, fitted to become the counsellor of a king, worthy of executing, capable of judging men, and transmitting his judgements to posterity.” This work was supposed by the editors to offer a “full justification to men who were prejudiced, to awaken in generous minds grateful recollections, to excite remorse in the hearts of the king’s persecutors, to give useful instructions to statesmen, and teach crowned heads that it is not sufficient to possess the virtues of Trajan and Antoninus; that the courage of heroes, and the policy of great kings, are equally necessary, joined to the wisdom of a Sully, and the firmness of a Richelieu.”

‘ The purposes of the *intended* French editors have been religiously observed with respect to the king’s letters, and also with respect to such of his other papers as have never yet appeared; but it seemed to me unnecessary to swell these volumes with the mass of papers that have been already published, and which are to be found in the journals of the times, and in most of the memoirs or annals of the French revolution. The chief merit which these papers possess in the eyes of the editors, is that they were written by Lewis the Sixteenth; and, as such, contain the faithful expression of his sentiments. A very few of those papers, which were but little known, I have preserved: but the insertion of the rest appeared to me unnecessary, for the reasons already mentioned. The titles of the papers which are omitted will be mentioned in the table of contents.

‘ The materials for this monument to the glory of Lewis the Sixteenth have been for some time prepared. The French editors state that they have it in their power to enlarge this collection, but that a choice was necessary. We are therefore in possession of those which are most favorable to the cause which the friends of the late king are anxious to support, deeming the evidence sufficient to gain every suffrage in its favor.

‘ It is unnecessary to mention the reasons which produced the delay of their publication, and still less the means by which these manuscript volumes fell into my hands. The only important point to be ascertained was that of their authenticity. The French editor, in the note which precedes his preface, states that the originals are deposited in the hands of a personage “who will think it a pleasure and a duty to communicate them to such as are curious or incredulous.” This statement is true. But, independent of this external proof, which is conclusive to those who are acquainted with the handwriting of the king, such measures have been taken, as appeared to



me fully satisfactory, to arrive at the greatest supplementary poof, by consulting such persons as were most likely to be informed on the subject. The proofs which I have obtained from men who now fill eminent offices under the republic, and from others who exercised the highest functions under Lewis the Sixteenth, and who were consequently instructed both as to the spirit and the letter, leave no doubt whatever, with respect to the authenticity of those papers. While they present the king alternately as a private and public man, by his correspondence with individuals, and his discourses to the national representation and to sections of the people, it appears singular that no suspicions entered the minds of the French editors, that the public, who were called only to admire, would sometimes pause to compare and to reason.' Vol. i. P. xv.

We confess ourselves among the number of those who *sometimes* think it necessary to *pause* in order to *compare* and *reason*; and on this account, instead of conceiving it *unnecessary to have mentioned the means by which these manuscript volumes fell into the English editor's hands*, we conceive it to have been a matter of the utmost consequence; and of equal consequence, that she should have granted some intimation to her readers of *the measures she had taken* to afford herself *full satisfaction* upon this subject: for miss Williams can scarcely have the vanity to suppose, that, because she has satisfied herself, she has therefore satisfied the public whom she addresses. We, indeed, have thought it of so much consequence, and so much our duty to our readers, as to have instituted some inquiry upon this subject: and the result is, that we have traced the existence of the original papers, and can speak as to that of the French *manuscript* volumes to which she refers as the basis of her own. As to the observations which accompany the letters, however, we still think that it would have been more prudent to have omitted them. The letters are, for the most part, sufficiently obvious of themselves—the period, and the events to which they relate, are within the recollection of every one—and the letters of Lewis XVI. and his ministers, can scarcely be thought to be much embellished, or illustrated, by the commentaries of Helen Maria Williams.

So much for the personal labours of the editor. As to the letters themselves, they are many of them important; and almost every one of them highly interesting. They confirm our opinion of the great goodness of heart, the sound judgement, and magnanimity, of this unfortunate monarch; and compel us, more than ever, to lament over those misfortunes which were brought upon him, rather by the tempestuous vehemence of the times in which he lived, and the want of energy in his ministers, than by any misconduct, or want of energy, of his own. Prosperity was his chief bane, as it is the bane of most men, titled or untitled, princes or peasants. In the earlier part of

his life, before he was immersed in the vortex of a court, equally corrupted in its morals and its religion by the hoary lasciviousness of his grandfather, he exhibited himself in the vale of retired life as an ornament to human nature ; and, when eventually called upon to evince, by a series of unparalleled insults, the native dignity of his heart, he appeared to a still greater advantage ; and seemed, like the barometer, to rise by the pressure of additional difficulties and afflictions. We shall now select, at random, a few of the letters of which the work consists.

‘ LETTRE XV.

‘ A. M. de Malesherbes.

‘ 13 Dec. 1786.

‘ J’aime et j’estime les hommes, mon cher Malesherbes, qui, par des ouvrages utiles, prouvent qu’ils font un sage emploi de leurs lumières : mais je n’encouragerai jamais, par aucun bienfait particulier, les productions qui tendent à la démoralisation générale. Voltaire, Rousseau, Diderot, et leurs pareils, qui un instant ont obtenu mon admiration, que j’ai su priser depuis, ont perverti la jeunesse qui lit avec ivresse, et la classe la plus nombreuse des hommes qui lisent sans reflexion. Sans doute, mon cher Malesherbes, la liberté de la presse agrandit la sphère des connaissances humaines. Sans doute il est à désirer que les gens de lettres puissent manifester leurs pensées sans licenciement d’une censure quelconque : mais les hommes sont toujours si au delà du point où la sagesse devrait les arrêter, qu’il faut non seulement une police sévère pour les livres, mais encore une surveillance active envers ceux qui sont chargés de les examiner, pour que les mauvais livres aient le moins de publicité possible. Je le sais, toute inquisition est odieuse : mais il faut un frein à la licence ; car, sans ce moyen, la religion et les mœurs perdraient bientôt de leur pouvoir, et la puissance royale de ce respect dont elle doit être toujours environnée. Nos philosophes modernes n’ont exalté les bienfaits de la liberté, que pour jeter avec plus d’adresse dans les esprits des semences de rébellion. Prenons y garde : nous aurons peut-être un jour à nous reprocher un peu trop d’indulgence pour les philosophes, et pour leurs opinions. Je crains qu’ils ne séduisent la jeunesse, et qu’ils ne préparent bien des troubles à cette génération qui les protège. Les remontrances du clergé sont en partie fondées : je ne puis qu’applaudir à sa prévoyance. Vous avez promis en mon nom, dans l’assemblée du clergé, de poursuivre les mauvais livres, les livres impies. Nous tiendrons notre promesse, parceque la philosophie trop audacieuse du siècle a une arrière pensée, qu’elle corrompt la jeunesse, et tend à tout troubler, et à tout diviser.

‘ Louis.

‘ (Translation.)

‘ To M. de Malesherbes.

‘ December 13, 1786.

‘ I love and esteem those men, my dear Malesherbes, who prove, by the useful productions of their pen, that they employ their talents

for worthy purposes : but I will never encourage, by any particular distinction, such works as tend to a general corruption of morals. Voltaire, Rousseau, Diderot, and other writers of the same cast, who obtained for a while my admiration, and whom I have since learned to appreciate, have perverted the young, who read with enthusiasm, and that class of society, which is the most numerous, who read without reflexion. The liberty of the press, my dear Malesherbes, no doubt enlarges the sphere of human knowledge : it is certainly to be wished that men of letters might have the privilege of publishing their thoughts without the obstacle of any censure whatever : but men are so apt to wander beyond that point where wisdom enjoins them to stop, that not only a severe police for books is necessary, but also a vigilant inspection over those who are commissioned to examine them, in order that noxious books may obtain as little notoriety as possible. I know that every kind of inquisition is odious : but it is necessary to curb licentiousness ; since, if this be not done, religion and morals would soon lose their influence, and regal authority that respect with which it should always be accompanied. Our modern philosophers have extolled the blessings of liberty, only to insinuate more easily into the minds of men the seeds of rebellion. Let us beware : we shall perhaps one day have to reproach ourselves with too much indulgence towards philosophers and their opinions. I fear they may seduce the young, and are preparing many troubles for the generation by which they are protected. The remonstrances of the clergy are in part well-founded ; and I cannot but applaud their foresight. You have promised the assembly of the clergy, in my name, to prosecute hurtful and impious books : we will keep our word ; for the too daring philosophy of the age has a project in reserve, while it corrupts youth, and tends towards general trouble and disorder.

‘ Lewis.’

Vol. i. p. 142.

The observations upon this letter, filling upwards of twenty pages of the volume, are equally too long and too desultory for insertion. The principal motive of the king's inattention to the repeated remonstrances of his clergy (of which these observations take not the smallest notice), was the gross and infamous immorality and infidelity of many of those who were the most clamorous for his interference—the archbishop of Toulouse, the leader of the band, being himself an avowed deist, to say the least of him. If the above letter evince a true principle of public liberality, the following will discover an equal portion of personal generosity ; and the brevity of the editor's observations will allow us, in this instance, to transcribe them as a general specimen of her manner.

‘ A. M. le Duc d'Orléans.

‘ Mon Cousin,

3 Juin, 1790.

‘ Madame la duchesse d'Orléans demande votre retour en France. Je répondrai aux instances de la vertu, en lui accordant ce qu'elle désire. On croit cependant que votre retour serait funeste à la tranquillité



publique : on va jusqu'à vous supposer des vues ambitieuses. . . . .  
Venez apprendre de votre roi comme il faut être Français, et comment  
on est digne d'être du sang de celui qui les gouverne.

‘ Louis.

‘ (Translation.)

‘ To the Duke of Orléans.

‘ My Cousin,

June 3, 1790.

‘ The duchess of Orléans desires your return to France. I will yield to the entreaties of virtue, by granting what she asks. It is believed, however, that your return would be fatal to public tranquillity : it is even supposed that you have ambitious views . . . . . Come, and learn of your king what a Frenchman ought to be, and how you may become worthy of the blood of him who governs them.

‘ Lewis.

‘ Observations on the XXXIst Letter.

‘ There is an appearance of dignity in this letter to the duke of Orléans, whose absence from France was enjoined after the affairs of the fifth and sixth of October. The king hints his apprehensions that the return of the duke might be fatal to the public tranquillity; the observation and counsel which follow, contain more than hints; and the breaks in the letter must have given his cousin the measure of the king's sentiments concerning him.

‘ The faction of the duke of Orléans has been much talked of in Europe. That he was sometimes the instrument of certain leaders of the popular party, admits of no doubt: but his personal ambition was always rebuked by his incapacity; he never arrived at the dignity of a chief. The king, however, appears to have had a contrary conviction; and the virtue of the duchess of Orléans was not a sufficient motive to betray him into the weakness of permitting the duke's return, had he had the power of preventing it.

‘ It appears to have been in consequence of this permission that M. d'Orléans, three weeks from the date of this letter, wrote to the king, signifying his acceptance. This answer he relates in a letter to the assembly, written a fortnight after, in which he informs his colleagues, that, whilst he was preparing for his departure, he received intimations from an aide-de-camp of M. de la Fayette to defer his journey, in the fear that ill-intentioned people might make use of his name to cause further disturbances. The duke wishes to know who are those ill-intentioned people, and declares his purpose of resuming his seat in the assembly, unless he receive from the legislature an injunction to the contrary.

‘ In the observations made by M. de la Fayette on the letter of the duke of Orléans to the assembly, he says, “After what passed between the duke of Orléans and me, in the month of October, and which I should not have mentioned, had he not thought fit to bring it before the assembly, I deemed it my duty to inform him that the same reasons, which had determined him to accept his mission, might still subsist.” It seems, from this intimation given to M. d'Orléans by M. de la Fayette, that certain circumstances had occurred, or that certain reflexions had arisen, in the interval of the king's letter and the duke's departure from London, which caused his further absence from Paris.

*Miss Williams's Correspondence of Lewis XVI.*

to be judged expedient. The object of this pretended mission to London was now sufficiently clear and explicit. The duke thought it prudent to yield at the time: but the party to which he was supposed to belong, having gained further ascendancy, grew indifferent to M. de la Fayette's suggestions. M. d'Orléans returned to Paris, according to the king's permission, without any dispositions (as the event proved) of availing himself of the counsel—in the sense in which it was offered—of learning from the king how to be a Frenchman, and worthy of the blood of him who governed them.' Vol. ii. p. 54.

Our extracts must conclude with the following offer and acceptance.

‘ Lettre de Malesherbes, au Président de la Convention Nationale, à l'Epoque du Jugement de Louis XVI.

‘ J'ignore, citoyen-président, si la convention donnera à Louis XVI. un conseil pour le défendre, et si elle lui en laissera le choix. Dans ce cas là je désire que Louis XVI. sache que, s'il me choisit pour cette fonction, je suis prêt à me dévouer. Je ne vous demande pas de faire part à la convention de mon offre; car je suis bien éloigné de me croire un personnage assez important pour qu'elle s'occupe de moi. J'ai été appelé deux fois au conseil de celui qui fut mon maître, dans le temps que cette fonction était ambitionnée par tout le monde: je lui dois le même service aujourd'hui, que c'est une fonction que bien des gens trouvent dangereuse. Si je connaissais un moyen possible pour lui faire connaître mes dispositions, je ne prendrais pas la liberté de m'adresser à vous. Je pense que, dans la place que vous occupez, vous avez plus de moyens que personne de lui faire passer cette lettre.

‘ Lamoignon Malesherbes.

‘ (Translation.)

‘ Letter of M. de Malesherbes, to the President of the National Convention, at the Epocha of the Trial of Lewis XVI.

‘ I am ignorant, citizen president, if the convention will allow Lewis XVI. a counsel to defend his cause, and whether they will leave him the choice. If that be the case, I wish he should be informed, that, if he appoints me to that office, I am ready to devote myself to his service. I do not ask that you should impart my proposition to the convention, being far from thinking myself a personage of sufficient importance to occupy its thoughts: but I was twice admitted into the council of him who was then my master, at a time when that function was coveted by all the world; and I owe him the same service at present, when it is become a function which many consider as dangerous. Had I known any possible method of making him acquainted with my wishes, I should not have taken the liberty of addressing myself to you. I suppose, that, in the place you fill, you have a greater facility than any other person of communicating to him this letter.

‘ Lamoignon Malesherbes.

‘ A M. de Malesherbes.

‘ Du Temple.

‘ Je n'ai point de termes, mon cher Malesherbes, pour vous expri-

mer ma sensibilité pour votre sublime dévouement. Vous avez été au devant de mes vœux : votre main octogénaire s'est étendue vers moi pour me repousser de l'échafaud ; et, si j'avais encore mon trône, je devrais le partager avec vous, pour me rendre digne de la moitié qui m'en resterait. Mais je n'ai que des chaînes, que vous rendez plus légères en les soulevant. Je vous renvoie au ciel et à votre propre cœur, pour vous tenir lieu de récompense.

‘ Je ne me fais pas illusion sur mon sort. Les ingrats qui m'ont détrôné ne s'arrêteront pas au milieu de leur carrière : ils auraient trop à rougir de voir sans cesse sous leurs yeux leur victime. Je subirai le sort de Charles Premier ; et mon sang coulera, pour me punir de n'en avoir jamais versé.

‘ Mais ne serait-il pas possible d'ennoblir mes derniers momens ? L'assemblée nationale renferme dans son sein les dévastateurs de ma monarchie, mes dénonciateurs, mes juges, et probablement mes bourreaux ! On n'éclaire pas de pareils hommes ; on ne les rend pas justes ; on peut encore moins les attendrir : ne vaudrait-t-il pas mieux mettre quelque nerf dans ma défense, dont la faiblesse même ne me sauverait pas ? J'imagine qu'il faudrait l'adresser, non à la convention, mais à la France entière, qui jugerait mes juges, et me rendrait, dans le cœur de mes peuples, une place que je n'ai jamais mérité de perdre. Alors mon rôle à moi se bornerait à ne point reconnaître la compétence du tribunal où la force me ferait comparaître. Je garderais un silence plein de dignité ; et, en me condamnant, les hommes qui se disent mes juges, ne seraient plus que mes assassins.

‘ Au reste, vous êtes, mon cher Malesherbes, ainsi que Tronchet qui partage votre dévouement, plus éclairé que moi : pesez dans votre sagesse mes raisons et les vôtres : je souscris aveuglément à tout ce que vous ferez. Si vous assurez cette vie, je la conserverai pour vous faire ressouvenir de votre bienfait : si on nous la ravit, nous nous retrouverons avec plus de charmes encore au séjour de l'immortalité.

‘ Signé, Louis.

‘ (Translation.)

‘ To M. de Malesherbes.

‘ At the Temple.

‘ I have no terms, my dear Malesherbes, in which to express how sensibly I am affected by your sublime devotedness. You have anticipated my wishes : your aged hand is stretched forth towards me, and would push me from the scaffold. Were I still in possession of my throne, I ought to share it with you, in order to render myself more worthy of the remaining half. But I have only chains, which you render lighter by holding them up. I refer you to heaven and your own heart, for your reward.

‘ I do not cherish illusions relative to my fate. Ingratitude, which has dethroned me, will not pause in the midst of its career. They would have too much cause to blush, if they were continually to support the sight of their victim. I shall undergo the fate of Charles the First ; and my blood will flow, to punish me for having never shed any.

‘ But would it not be possible to ennoble my last moments ? The national assembly contains the destroyers of my monarchy, my accusers, my judges, and probably my executioners. Nothing can enlighten



such men: they are not to be rendered just; and they are still less to be softened. Would it not be better to give some energy to my defence, since its weakness will never save me? It ought, I think, to be addressed, not to the national convention, but to the whole of France, who would judge my judges, and would restore me a place in the hearts of the people, which I have never deserved to lose. In that supposition, the part I should have to act would consist in not acknowledging the competence of the tribunal before which I should be forced to appear. I would observe a dignified silence; and, in condemning me, the men who call themselves my judges, would become my assassins.

‘ Upon the whole, you, my dear Malesherbes, and Tronchet who shares your devotedness, are more enlightened than I. Weigh, in your wisdom, my reasons and your own. I will acquiesce, without hesitation, in all you propose. If you secure my life, I will preserve it in order to remind you of the benefit: and, if we are bereaved of it, we shall meet again, with still greater delight, in the abodes of immortality.

‘ Lewis.’ Vol. iii. p. 65.

All observation, either of miss Williams's or our own, is here unnecessary. The integrity of the illustrious Malesherbes when in office, and his enthusiastic loyalty when out, are known to every one: and the eulogy of either friends or foreigners is equally useless to the celebration of his character. The memorable defence which hence took its rise, and which was entitled to a far happier result than it received, is given, *verbatim*, in the Appendix to Mr. Dallas's Translation of M. Bertrand de Moleville's Annals; in our review of which, we regretted, as we still continue to regret, that it was not followed by an English version.

The whole list of letters, of which the correspondence consists, amount to seventy-five; to which are added a variety of papers, or notices, written by the unfortunate monarch, upon moral or political subjects, either separately, or in the margin of books to which they relate.

To the introductory list is subjoined a catalogue of ‘ papers omitted, having, as is noticed in the preface, been published in various other works.’ The two lists together, should seem, therefore, to form a catalogue of all the letters, or public papers, which are known to have proceeded from the hands of the king. This, however, is a mistake; for our memory will supply us with several of which no notice is taken in either; and especially with the king's letter to the princes, his brothers, of the date of October 1791; another to Monsieur, in the ensuing month; and a third to the count d'Artois, addressed at the same time. We give miss Williams credit, however, for much judgement in the selection of those which are inserted: we have little doubt that they will be sought after with avidity, and perused with a cordial participation in the afflictive scenes they exhibit.

ART. VI. — *The Argonautics of Apollonius Rhodius, &c.*  
 (Continued from our last Volume, p. 254.)

WE have dwelt so largely upon the merits and defects of the first and second volumes of this work, that, in our examination of the third, to which we now hasten, little can be expected of us, but to notice its contents, and to select a few passages of more easy detachment, as specimens of our author's style and manner. We cannot, however, avoid noticing, that the volume before us appears to have been written many years posterior to the second, and bears indisputable marks of augmented labour, and a more mature judgement, than are exhibited either in the version or the notes. It consists of a prose translation of a part of the Argonautic expedition, as related by Apollodorus the Athenian, in his *Bibliotheca*, and of Orpheus in his *Argonautics*; and of seven literary essays; *viz.* On the life of Apollonius Rhodius—On the Argonautic expedition—On the manners of the heroic ages, considered with a reference to poetry—On the poetical character of Apollonius Rhodius—Apollonius Rhodius and Virgil compared—On the geography of Apollonius Rhodius—On the Hesperides and their gardens. As a fair specimen of our author's merit in this department of polite criticism, we select with pleasure his observations, compiled principally from Epiphanius and Athenæus, upon the learning and manners of Alexandria, in the reign of Ptolemy Physcon, whose court, in opulence, and the patronage of literary abilities, seems almost to have rivaled those, in after times, of the Persian sultans—Mahmud of Ghezna, and Keder ben Ibrahim of the Gheznevites.

One would hardly believe, that a prince, who is represented by historians as a monster, rather than a man, for such was the character of Ptolemy Physcon, should have deserved the reputation of being the restorer of letters, and the patron of learned men: yet this is attested by Athenæus, Vitruvius, Epiphanius, and others. Athenæus relates, that in the short intervals between his vicious excesses, and licentious orgies, he applied himself to the study of the polite arts and sciences. Nay, according to this author, he had a knowledge so extensive, and such ease in discoursing of all kinds of literature, that he acquired the surname of Ptolemy the Philologist. The same author adds, that he wrote a history in twenty-four books, and a learned comment on Homer. His history, as Epiphanius informs us, was in great repute among the ancients, and often quoted by those who wrote on the same subject. He, too, enriched the Alexandrian library, at vast expence; having sent learned men into all parts of the world, for that purpose, and allowed ample pensions to learned men, and distinguished philosophers.

In such a fostering seminary of talent, where a long succession of munificent and learned princes formed in their court an academy for arts and literature, for genius and philosophy, the propensities of the sovereign impress a literary stile, a tone of cultivation, not only on the

court, but on the people at large ; and prepared, on the confines of Libya, a refinement and perfection of the Greek language, that equalled the happiest efforts of Athens herself, and produced a Ptolemaic age, which, though less known and celebrated, at least in modern times, may deserve to be placed in competition with the Augustan age of Rome. Boundless wealth to reward merit, attracted competitors, from every side, ambitious of obtaining the smile of royalty. No doubt, the great, the rich, and powerful of the court, who always imitate the propensities of the sovereign, wished to distinguish themselves, by an encouragement of genius and learning, according to the fashion of the day.—Thus, the poet found himself a personage of importance. He was cultivated, caressed, encouraged, and rewarded. Splendour, magnificence, wealth, and elegant luxury, shone on every side to elevate his fancy. All the means of cultivating the understanding were rendered generally accessible to all, in the magnificent repository of the sovereign, where were not only books, but every instrument and object of science, which the world then knew. To this were added philosophical converse, elegant society, the emulation of genius and talent, the collision of mind, all tending to mature and digest the understanding. Here was collected the splendour of beauty, with that of pomp and opulence. The taste and elegance of Greece were blended with the state and magnificence of Asia. Every delight of sense, every possible indulgence of the fancy, tended to fill the mind with images of delight. The ear was perpetually filled with the ravishing sounds of exquisite harmony ; the eyes were incessantly gratified with the surrounding forms of animate and inanimate beauty.—What a situation for a poet ! wrapt in the bosom of ease and indulgence, exempt from any toil, but that which the inspiration of his Muse demanded ; freed from the intrusion of every care, excepting that of his reputation ; exempt from every source of vexation, except those created by the irritability of talent, the wakeful jealousy of genius and sensibility, and the restless impatience of competition. The exertions of genius were facilitated, by an easy access to an admirable library and museum ; and, at the same time, called out, by a variety of contending and powerful motives, and interests.

At the court of Alexandria, avarice was attracted, and satiated, to its utmost wish, by the noble rewards which the bounteous hand of royalty showered on merit. The pride and consciousness of genius were stimulated to exertion by competition, in which talent strove to surpass itself. The mind displayed powers, which she did not imagine she possessed, and arrived at heights, which she thought herself incapable of attaining. Vanity was flattered, by the hope of attracting the smiles, and deserving the applause, of the fair and young, of the great and the brave, of the rich and the noble, of the learned and the wise, of the elegant and the accomplished—in fine, of every thing that the known world could then produce, of amiable, brilliant, and respectable.—The ambitious spirit marked, with graver eyes, the predilection of the sovereign, for the faculties and endowments, which he possessed ; and anticipated, from the favour and encouragement of a discerning monarch, a certain road to eminence, in the display of genius, the exertions of art, and the researches of science.

The literary stile of conversation, that prevailed at the court of



the Ptolemies, and the amenity and condescension of those accomplished princes, may be collected from a story, which is related of Ptolemy Soter, the first of the dynasty.—This prince was commonly supposed to be of mean descent—One day, after he had heard, for a long time, a vain and trifling grammarian, who made a display of his skill in antiquities—he interrupted the torrent of learning, with a question—“Since you are so well versed in the learning of the ancients, tell me, without hesitation, O grammarian, who was the father of Peleus?”—The grammarian answered with promptitude—“Tell me, first, O king, if you can, who was the father of Lagus?”—This answer produced no small indignation in the courtiers; but Ptolemy, applauding the humour, and pleased with the freedom of the grammarian, told them, that if it was beneath the dignity of a king to bear a jest, it still less became him to jest on his subject.

‘Such was the happy situation of the arts and letters, at the court of Alexandria—a situation how different from that, in which they have been too generally found, in times both ancient and modern! Melancholy, indeed, is the history of arts and sciences in this respect.—It is hardly any thing but a martyrology, filled with the lamentations, and mournful destinies, of the victims of genius; which might lead us to think, that there is an almost general conspiracy, a confederacy of ingratitude, among men, which has disposed them to condemn their benefactors to the dark and doubtful recompence of posthumous fame; and to repay the exertions of those, who have presumptuously attempted to delight, instruct, or reform the world, with discouragement in every form, with envy and vexation, with pain, with poverty, and with neglect.’ Vol. iii. p. 42.

With respect to the Argonautic history, we entirely coincide with our author’s opinion, as expressed in the following observations.

‘From the foregoing considerations, I am fully persuaded, that we neither ought, with Mr. Bryant, to aim at allegorizing the whole story of the Argonautic expedition, nor ought we to receive it with scorn, and indifference, as wholly fabulous. We cannot consider, as altogether fictitious, a transaction so much celebrated, the subject, as I have already said, of so many historical compositions, and so many poetical productions. Many of these have reached us; and many more were written, which have perished, as appears from the scholiasts on Apollonius Rhodius, who refer to a multitude of authors, whose writings are lost, and whose very names are recorded only by those learned grammarians. Some foundation there must have been, in truth and fact, however exaggerated and disguised by fiction, to render the Argonautic expedition an event of such notoriety, and apparent authenticity, in history, that it became an epoch for astronomical observation, and chronological calculation, with other memorable transactions, which have never been called into doubt, as historical facts; such as the Trojan war, the return of the Heraclidæ. We may conclude, then, that the history of this transaction is a mixture of historical truth, and legendary fables, like all the rude accounts, which are handed down to us, of the first origin, and early transactions, of all nations, as they are preserved in tradition, and popular songs. Poetry

and rhyme are the first vehicles of historical record. Bards and minstrels, in the rude ages, when the arts of writing are little known, are the only brief chronicles of the time. The enthusiasm and love of the marvellous, incident to rude and early ages, naturally prone to wonder and exaggeration, disposes men to embellish the accounts of every bold and extraordinary action, with many fabulous additions; and to ascribe to magic, and supernatural agency, every thing, which seems, to their untaught minds, to surpass the measure of human strength, and reality. Thus, truth and nature are concealed, or disfigured, by a large superstructure of fiction. Yet, still, it cannot be questioned, that there is a considerable groundwork of truth, for the rhyming histories, the popular legends, and ancient traditions, that commemorate the exploits of early ages. In fact, if we substitute the fabulous beings of the Gothic mythology, its genii, fairies, wizards, witches, and goblins, for the deities, the nymphs, the centaurs, the sirens, and enchanters of Grecian mythology; the stories of the fabulous times of Greece will not be found to differ very materially, in point of probability, from those of our early British and Saxon history.

‘ Nor should the story of the Argonautic expedition be reprobated, as the narrative of a mere piratical excursion, a trifling predatory expedition, any more than if a Spanish, a Portugeze, an English, or a Dutch poet, were to select for his subject, one of the early maritime expeditions of his nation. What, in fact, were the first enterprises, of the early adventurers and voyagers of Europe, to the East, and to the new world?—Were they not equally piratical, and equally romantic, with those of ancient Greece? Were they not equally undertaken, by small bands of adventurers? Were they not equally marked by dangers, and with daring? And do they not afford equal room for the disguises of fiction, and the admixture of fable? Do not the narratives, of the different voyages of discovery, bring back, to modern times, the appearance of those illustrious and heroic piracies, of which we are told by Herodotus and Thucydides?—Men, at once robbers and merchants, rush from Europe, to nations inhabiting another part of the globe, unknown in situation, language, and even in name; nations, which neither had, nor possibly could have provoked them, by any injury; and, without any other motive to stimulate them, than the love of adventure, and a wild and indefinite expectation of acquiring immense wealth, they waste, they burn, they destroy. Their rapine and savage cruelty keeps pace with their dangers and heroic courage. —One poet, Camoens, has selected a similar argument; and adorned it so, as to make it appear highly interesting, not only to the Portugeze, his countrymen, but even to the poetical readers, of every other country, and of every time. And if any other poet should, in like manner, have chosen, as a subject, the maritime expeditions and discoveries of his countrymen, and adorned them, with all the power of genius, as monuments of the adventurous spirit, the bravery, and ancient glory of his nation; can we doubt of the song becoming popular; particularly among a people exulting in commerce, naval fame, and consequence; and enjoying the fruits of the discoveries celebrated by the poet?

‘ We see, that the great poets of antiquity did not select their subjects wantonly, or capriciously; but, that, independent of the intrinsic merit of the fable, as an interesting story, and of the charms of the



poetry, there was a certain political motive, a secret bond of connexion, and felicity of topics, that spoke to the self-love of the reader and auditor, and disposed them to take a peculiar interest in the productions, that celebrated the Argonautic expedition, the siege of Troy, the wanderings of Ulysses.—Such subjects came home to the business and bosoms of the Greeks. They recalled to mind their maritime expeditions, their naval discoveries, and their triumphs in Asia. Thus, the epic strain of Homer nourished, in the young bosom of Alexander, the spirit that attempted, and achieved, the downfall of Persia, and established the Greek empire in the East.' Vol. iii. p. 76.

We shall close our extracts with the ensuing remarks on the different character which attach to the writings of Homer, and those of Apollonius and Virgil: they prove the author to possess an equal degree of taste and judgement.

'As, in every point of view, the poems of Homer are admirable; in one respect they are invaluable, namely, in that of having been really produced, in the heroic age, or, at least, in a period so very near, as to have admitted no material deviations from the manners and habits of the time, which he celebrates. His descriptions, therefore, give an exact picture of the state of society and manners, of the progress of the arts, and the degree of refinement, which had actually taken place. These representations, though, perhaps, less perfect and pleasing, as paintings, and considered in a general point of view, than those of Apollonius Rhodius and Virgil, are more valuable, as faithful portraits, which afford us real historical views, of the growth of society, and the progress of the human mind. The different actors, who are introduced in his poems, are all real personages, who existed before him, who were handed down, to his knowledge, by legendary tradition, and whose several characters were ready framed, and ascertained to his hand.

'Apollonius and Virgil wrote, at a great distance from the heroic ages; when softness of manners, luxury, refinement, and science, were at their height. The ages, in which they flourished, were wholly unlike to the heroic, in their characteristics, in all the intercourse of society, in all the occupations and pursuits of men: in their modes of thinking, and the degrees of knowledge and refinement, which they generally possessed. Yet, these writers, with only polished courtiers, and men of letters, before them, for their archetypes, were led, by their choice of subjects, to depict the manners and customs, and exhibit the personages, of the early heroic ages. They saw nothing existing before their eyes, in real life, from which they could derive the ideas necessary for their representations, they were obliged to resort to their own imaginations, and to the stores of knowledge of past times hoarded in their minds; assisted by the records of historical truth, joined with the helps derived from imitation. They were reduced, to copy from the materials, which they found provided for them in the writings of Homer. Or, if they ventured to depart from the footsteps of that venerable and faithful guide, they were obliged to resort to fiction, and found themselves insensibly impressed and biassed, by what they had seen and heard around them. They mixed too much of their



own feelings and sentiments, of the politeness, refinement, and knowledge, of their own times, with the details of the transactions of early ages, and attributed them to personages, who were supposed to be living, speaking, and acting, in a rude and remote antiquity. The consequence of this is a palpable departure from the *costume* (to use the painter's term) of the times, which they profess to describe and exhibit. They introduce arts and sciences, a degree of luxury, pomp, and splendour, which were then unknown. — They represent the bonds of society, and comforts of life, in a more forward state than they really were; and above all, they ascribe to the actors in their fables, a certain refinement of sentiment, an artificial conduct, a finesse of manner, and studied decorum, which are the consequence, and the characters, of a much greater degree of polish, and a far more advanced state of society; in fact, they fall into a moral anachronism.

‘ There is one circumstance, in which, particularly, Apollonius and Virgil show themselves the progeny of a more refined age: and depart from the manners of the heroic times; I mean, their allowing to love such a mighty share in the fables, and predominant influence in the catastrophe of their poems; and still more, their giving such minute delineations of the passion abstractedly considered, and traced out to its secret operations in the human breast. The rank and pre-eminence, which are thus given to love, are not in the spirit of the heroic ages, but bespeak an age more refined, and advanced in civilization, and elegance. In Apollonius, for instance, there are much arrangement and dialogue, which would not disgrace the high polish and decorum of the French stage. — In Homer, though the rape of Helen is the avowed cause of the Trojan war, yet love has small share in the action; and Paris and Helen are very subordinate figures in the picture. — Indeed, avarice seems to have, at least, as much share as amorous gallantry, on the part of Paris, or wounded honour, and conjugal attachment, on the part of Menelaus. — It appears, that the adulterer carried off great treasures with the lady, *Κτήματα δ' αὖτ' αὐτῇ* — and that the reluctance of the Trojans, particularly that of the court of Priam, to disgorge this wealth, was the great obstacle to an accommodation; while the desire of regaining it, seems to have contributed to the ardour of the Greeks, in prosecuting the war; at least, as much as the wrongs of Menelaus; for we find, in every negociation on the subject of restoring Helen, particular care is taken to mention the treasures. — Even Briseis, the fair captive, whose loss produced the destructive wrath of Achilles, which caused innumerable woes to the Greeks — even she is little seen. — There are no details of the amorous feelings of the hero. He seems to be more agitated, by the keen sense of insult, and the feelings of wounded pride, than by any tender or fond attachment to his mistress. Briseis occupies but a few lines in the whole poem, though she furnishes occasion for the entire action of it. The hero's expressions of regard for her are energetic, indeed, but brief in the extreme; and are summed up in half a dozen words. — So, Book I. l. 167.

— *Εγὼ δ' ὀλέγον τι φίλον τι  
Ερχομαι ἔχων ἐπὶ νῆας.* —

And Book IX. l. 341.

—Επει ὅστις ἀνὴρ ἀγαθὸς· καὶ ἐχέφρων  
Τῇ αὐτῇ φίλει καὶ κηδεταί, ὥς καὶ ἐγὼ τῇ  
Ἐκ θυμῷ φίλον, δαρκτητὴν περ εἶσαν.

The plain sincerity, and blunt unadorned conciseness, of these expressions of regard, are highly characteristic of the roughness and simplicity of the heroic ages.—There are much warmth and sincerity, but no parade—no abstraction.—Hector and Telemachus are represented, as possessing feeling hearts, great mildness of disposition, and gentleness of manners; yet, the reader must recollect the tone and expressions, in which the one speaks to his wife, the other to his mother, in the poems of Homer. With how little politeness, gallantry, or even common civility, they addressed the women, whom they most loved and valued! And this may serve to convince him, that amorous gallantry, refined compliments, and politeness, an enthusiastic deference to the fair sex, have not properly any place, in the pictures of the manners of the heroic ages.

—Ἀλλ' εἰς οἶκον ἴουσα τὰ σαυτῆς ἔργα κομίζε,  
Ἴστοι τ' ἡλακτὴν τέ, καὶ ἀμφιπολαίσι κλισίῃς  
Ἔργοι ἐποιχίσθαι. — Iliad, VI. 490.

In the first book of the Odyssey, see l. 345. Telemachus employs the very same expressions, to his mother; while he orders her, to retire to her apartment; and she submissively obeys his injunction. And the poet praises the young prince, as speaking prudently and properly, on the occasion.

Ἡ μὲν θαμβήσασα παλιν οἰκοῖδε βέλκεται  
Παῖδ'· γὰρ μῦθον ἐπειγνυμένην εἶπεν· ὅμω.

Yet, Telemachus is represented, as adorned with every virtue, and, particularly, as a model of prudence, beyond his years. Women, in fact, in those ages, were considered as occupying a very inferior rank in society. They occur, in history and fable, as the unimportant objects of a transient desire, or the helpless victims of brutality and outrage; as creatures formed for the accommodation of man; as things rather to be possessed and enjoyed, than courted and admired. In those times of toil and warfare, strength was the great test of perfection, the great pledge of superiority. The people, in those ages, knew not any of the illusions of love. They regarded women as inferior beings, because they were weaker than themselves; and the young men, as soon as they had attained the age of virility, assumed a tone of superiority, even to their mothers. This is, every where, the natural sentiment of a rude age. Among the modern savages of America, whose manners and occupation much resemble those of the ancient warriors, in the fabulous times of Greece, love engrosses little of their thoughts. The attachment of the men to the females, is, comparatively speaking, but cold and slight; and they devolve, on the feebler sex, the laborious task of cultivating their land, and the menial office of attending on the warriors.—The Russians, too, who are still far behind the rest of the people of Europe, in civilization, think that women are destined by nature, to be placed in the humblest submission to them—they speak



to them, in a tone of imperious superiority—they exact from them the most servile attention, and deference.—Rousseau, in his sketch of the manners of the inhabitants of the *Pays de Vaud*, gives a similar picture of the state of subordination, in which the females were held. Such manners are the natural result, as I have said, of rude unpolished feelings, which ascribe an extraordinary degree of superiority, to superior animal strength; and dispose the strong, to abuse their force, and employ it, to oppress the weak.' Vol. iii. p. 105.

ART. VII.—*A System of Chemistry.* By Thomas Thomson, M. D. Lecturer on Chemistry in Edinburgh. 4 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 16s. Boards. Robinsons. 1802.

THE article of chemistry, in the Supplement to the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, we have already spoken of with applause. It is the outline of the present work, which, in the volumes before us, is filled up with great ability and extent of information. The science of mineralogy, so far as it is connected with chemistry, is also included.

Here, perhaps, our notice of this work might have ceased; but the work itself is of too great importance to be passed over cursorily, and the author too respectable to be dismissed in a manner so summary. A few novelties will attract our attention; and, with respect to the general plan, we have somewhat to blame, as well as much to commend. Of the arrangement, Dr. Thomson observes, that he can 'speak with more confidence, because one, in many respects similar, has been adopted by Fourcroy, in his late work.' Names, however, do not sanction error, or remove inconvenience; and it is necessary to consider the subject more particularly.

It has been long since remarked, that science should be investigated by analysis, and taught by synthesis; that, in communicating our knowledge, we should begin with the simplest truths, and rise to the most intricate combinations. This method is, however, chiefly adapted to intellectual, not to natural science; and, in natural philosophy, we have always found the student much perplexed by the elements of the atomic system. In chemistry, we suspect, a similar inconvenience will arise. The tyro is told of simple bodies; but these are not the air we breathe, the river or spring without smell or taste, the plant we admire, or the earth we tread on. Sulphur and charcoal, he is probably acquainted with; but, that these are simple uncompounded bodies, will appear absurd, and, of oxygen, phosphorus, hydrogen, and azot, he can form no idea: and that the diamond is a simple substance must surpass common belief. What is air in the inexperienced student's view, if it be not the air we breathe? It is the same, and different: it eludes his senses; and its other properties, except that it is generally unfit



for breathing, he cannot comprehend. We suspect, therefore, that this mode of teaching chemistry is a refinement without an adequate advantage; that it is adapted for the proficient, rather than the learner. The other method, that of analysis, takes up bodies as they appear to our senses. Something of salt the student knows, as culinary salt is necessarily familiar to him: acids are equally so; and the various earths, combustibles, &c. are constantly before him. He advances then, with little impediment, from particular to general properties; and will not feel great difficulty when he sees ammonia converted into different kinds of air, or the vitriolic acid become, by the loss of air only, a substance with which he has long been acquainted under the name of sulphur. In short, we have little hesitation in saying, that more inconvenience than advantage will probably result from this new plan.

Dr. Thomson's introductory distinction, between the objects of natural history and natural philosophy, is peculiarly neat and correct; as well as the respective definitions of what are styled the mechanical philosophy and chemistry. A short history of chemistry, in its earliest period, is given, which it was the author's design to have continued; but he found that it would lead him too far. His historical accounts, however, of our knowledge respecting different bodies, prefixed to each head, are highly entertaining and interesting.

The simple substances noticed, are, oxygen, sulphur, phosphorus, carbon, hydrogen, and azot. Next follow the metals, which are described with peculiar discrimination and accuracy. The article of iron, which has engaged so much of the chemist's attention, is very full and complete: that of antimony is also minute, and contains the substance of some late pharmaceutical remarks, noticed in our review of the *Annales de Chimie*. Twenty-two metals are mentioned; but the columbium occurs only in the fourth volume, as it was not known at an earlier period. One other metal, the palladium, was supposed to be discovered subsequent to the publication of these volumes. It appears, however, not to be a distinct metallic substance, for Mr. Hatchett has lately shown that it is platina, with a proportion of quicksilver. Whether the error were accidental or fraudulent, we know not: we suspect the former, since platina is generally amalgamated with quicksilver, to separate any gold that it may contain. In this operation some part of the latter metal may not have been wholly volatilised. In every arrangement, inconvenience must occur; and, even in our author's plan, he is obliged to speak of affinity before he has explained it; and the student must be contented with a general and popular view of the subject, as its fuller detail occurs in a subsequent part of the work.

Light and caloric are next considered; and these subjects

are treated in a masterly comprehensive manner. We see nothing that is omitted, or that can with propriety be altered; and the tables annexed add greatly to the value of the work. Dr. Thomson mentions, under the former head, the opinion of heat and light repelling each other, without referring to the author to whom it was attributed in the *Encyclopædia*—Dr. Parr, of Exeter. We are not well acquainted with that gentleman's claims to the discovery, if such it be; but we remember, when reviewing the work in which it appeared, that it seemed wholly new, and singularly ingenious. We have since seen it attributed to other authors, who were certainly posterior in point of time, particularly Gren; but, previous to the publication of Gren's *Chemistry*, though subsequent to the *Exeter Essays*, some remarks of this kind were suggested by the chemical professor at Abo.

With respect to the objection, that, if this theory were true, the light should, after some continuance of the luminous state, be exhausted, we cannot think it has any foundation: when the natural quantity is separated, the body is still permeable to other light, as well as to heat. The most perfect slag will continue luminous and hot, by means of the fire around. The system seems to relate only to bodies shining with light wholly their own, as coals, charcoal, candles, &c.

The compound bodies are divided into primary and secondary compounds. Among the first are the alkalies and earths; and the latter are arranged in the classification we formerly recommended; viz. the alkaline earths follow the alkalies in the order of their resemblance, and the list closes with silica. Some remarks on this subject we shall select as a specimen.

‘ The fixed alkalies and earths, taken in the order in which they have been described in the preceding sections, constitute a regular series. The difference between the properties of potass and silica, which occupy the two extremities of this series, is very considerable; but the difference between the properties of any two contiguous bodies in the series is but small. Barytes, for instance, agrees with the fixed alkalies in so many particulars, that it might, without any impropriety, be arranged under the head of alkalies; and this has actually been done by Fourcroy. The same remark applies to strontian. These two bodies agree with lime also so nearly that they have been arranged with it by almost all chemists. Again, if we compare lime and magnesia, we shall find them to correspond in the greater number of their properties. In like manner, magnesia corresponds with alumina; and the difference between alumina, yttria, glucina, and zirconia, is but small; while the correspondence between these last earths and silica is no less striking.

‘ Perhaps, therefore, in strict propriety, the fixed alkalies and earths ought to be comprehended together in one general class; But the division of them into alkalies and earths was made at an early period, before the properties of the bodies comprehended under them had



been examined ; and this division has been still retained, though it is no easy matter to say what particular bodies ought to be arranged under each of these heads. Luckily the point is not of much consequence. The common division has been followed in the two preceding chapters. But some modern chemists, especially Fourcroy, have placed barytes and strontian among the alkalies. No fault can be found with this arrangement, because the division of these bodies into earths and alkalies is perfectly arbitrary. But surely if barytes and strontian be placed among alkalies, lime ought not to be excluded ; for barytes and strontian do not possess a single alkaline property of which lime is destitute. And if lime be reckoned among the alkalies, no good reason can be given why magnesia should be excluded. The truth is, that these bodies graduate into each other so nicely that they can scarcely be placed in different classes. This is a sufficient reason for preferring the common division to the new one proposed by Fourcroy.' Vol. i. p. 467.

'These bodies, too, may be divided into pairs, which have a striking resemblance to each other ; as potash and soda, barytes and strontian, yttria and glucina, alumina and zirconia. Between the two last, however, the similarity is not very great. Of the existence of agustina, as a distinct earth, there are certainly some doubts ; and Tromsdorf, its discoverer, has lately omitted it in his 'Manual.'

The first volume concludes with the oxyds ; and those particularly noticed, are, the oxyd of carbon, and of azot, and water. This may be a chemical arrangement, but is by no means a natural, or a convenient one ; and the acids, placed at the commencement of the second volume, at a distance from, and independently of, the alkalies, increase the difficulty.

The acids are fully enumerated, and completely described ; but the sulphurated hydrogen gas, which so much resembles the acids, should have been noticed among them. It occurs, indeed, in the third volume. The formic and the bombyc acids are not particularly specified : the uric and amniotic are examined among the animal substances. The compound combustibles follow : these are the inflammables of other chemists.

The second division contains the secondary compounds ; and of these the first are earthy combinations, including stone-ware, or porcelain ; the second, glass ; the third, the various neutral salts. What relates to the manufacture of glass is very imperfect. The use of the oxyd of lead is not explained ; nor is a single word mentioned of magnesia, or of its peculiar property of clearing the glass from the metallic tinge. It is, indeed, noticed as giving a purple colour to glass ; but it produces this colour only when in excess. We must again mention the singular inconvenience of placing the neutrals at so great a distance from their component parts. The metals occur early in the first volume ; the metallic salts at the end of the second, and the beginning of the third.



The fourth chapter of the second division is on hydrosulphurets; and the fifth on soaps: and the third book, the last of the first part, on affinity, including the theory of crystallisation, according to M. Haüy, by whom it was published previous to the appearance of his last work.

The second part contains the chemical examination of nature; and the first book is on the Atmosphere; the second is on Water; and the third on Minerals. The first chapter of the book on the atmosphere relates to its composition; and the second to metrology; under which is given the chemical explanation of the various changes of its weight and temperature; of evaporation, rain, wind, and atmospherical electricity. On these subjects we have nothing particularly new. The author will not admit of evaporation being occasioned by the decomposition of water, as hydrogen is absent when rain is forming. We believe, however, that our eudiometric experiments are neither so numerous, nor so much to be depended on, as to make this objection valid. We know, that, from its levity, hydrogen is chiefly in the upper regions of the air; and, if electricity have any share in this change, as is highly probable, hydrogen will be produced in atmospheric air by its action.

The book on 'Waters' comprehends common, sea, and mineral waters. A good abstract of the contents of mineral waters, and of the different methods of analysis, occurs in this part of the work; and the last book contains an equally accurate and comprehensive view of mineralogy. What relates to metallic ores, which certainly belong to the chemical history of metals, and should not have been separated from that part of the work which relates to them, is full and satisfactory.

The fourth book is on Vegetables, and the fifth on Animal Substances. The first chapter of the fourth book is on the component parts of vegetables; the second contains the general doctrines of vegetation; and the third is on the *decomposition* of animal substances—a term not perfectly apposite, though not very erroneous. This chapter treats of fermentation, including bread, wine, beer, &c. A good specimen of the clearness of our author's views and explanations may be selected from what he says respecting the *succi proprii* of vegetables.

'The peculiar juice is easily known by its colour and its consistence. In some plants it is green, in some red, in many milky. It cannot be doubted that its motion in the vessels is performed in the same way as that of the sap.

'If we had any method of obtaining this peculiar juice in a state of purity, the analysis of it would throw a great deal of light upon vegetation; but this is scarce possible, as we cannot extract it without dividing at the same time the vessels which contain the sap. In many cases, however, the peculiar juice may be known by its colour, and then its analysis may be performed with an approach towards accu-

racy. The experiments made on such juices have proved, as might have been expected, that they differ very considerably from each other, and that every plant has a juice peculiar to itself. Hence it follows, that the processes which go on in the leaves of plants must differ at least in degree, and that we have no right to transfer the conclusions deduced from experiments on one species of plants to those of another species. It is even probable, that the processes in different plants are not the same in kind; for it is not reasonable to suppose, that the phenomena of vegetation in an agaric or a boletus are precisely the same as those which take place in trees and in larger vegetables, on which alone experiments have hitherto been made.

‘To attempt any general account of the ingredients of the peculiar juice of plants, is at present impossible. We may conclude, however, from the experiments of Chaptal, that it contains the vegetable fibre of wood, either ready formed, or very nearly so; just as the blood in animals contains a substance which bears a strong resemblance to the muscular fibres.

‘When oxy-muriatic acid was poured into the peculiar juice of the euphorbia, which in all the species of that singular genus is of a milky colour and consistency, a very copious white precipitate fell down. This powder, when washed and dried, had the appearance of fine starch, and was not altered by keeping. It was neither affected by water nor alkalis. Alcohol, assisted by heat, dissolved two-thirds of it; which were again precipitated by water, and had all the properties of resin. The remaining third part possessed the properties of the woody fibre. Mr. Chaptal tried the same experiment on the juices of a great number of other plants, and he constantly found that oxy-muriatic acid precipitated from them woody fibre. The seeds of plants exhibited exactly the same phenomenon; and a greater quantity of woody fibre was obtained from them than from an equal portion of the juices of plants. These experiments are sufficient to shew that the proper juices of plants contain their nourishment ready prepared, nearly in the state in which it exists in the seed for the use of the young embryo.

‘The peculiar juices of plants, then, contain more carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen, and less water, and probably lime also, than the sap. They are conveyed to every part of the plant; and all the substances which we find in plants, and even the organs themselves, by which they perform their functions, are formed from them. But the thickest veil covers the whole of these processes; and so far have philosophers hitherto been from removing this veil, that they have not even been able to approach it. All these operations, indeed, are evidently chemical decompositions and combinations; but we neither know what these decompositions and combinations are, nor the instruments in which they take place, nor the agents by which they are regulated.’  
Vol. iv. p. 299.

We may add to this part of the work, that Vauquelin has lately found the prussic acid to exist completely formed in the bitter kernels of fruit. The juice of the papaw tree appears also to resemble, in every respect, the albumen of the blood.

The last part is on animal substances; and the collection of



analyses of the different parts of animal bodies appears to be complete. The animal functions, so far as they are understood, or connected with chemistry, are also explained with the author's usual clearness and precision.

After this account of the work, and the many different parts which we have distinguished, as executed with ability, we need scarcely add any summary character. It is unnecessary to bestow general praise on what we have found so unexceptionable in almost every part.

ART. VIII.—*Pinkerton's Modern Geography, &c.* (Continued from Vol. XXXVII, p. 265.)

NO apology will perhaps be required for resting so long on a work which marks a new æra in the science, and which, from the numerous discoveries of later navigators and travelers, chiefly of our own nation, is enriched in a degree which, in the early part of the last century, could not have been expected by its most sanguine cultivators. We shall, however, hasten somewhat more rapidly over countries where local interest and peculiar attachments do not offer any powerful attractions, and in which our newly-acquired knowledge has formed a part of this journal, within a limited period, and consequently within the recollection and reach of our readers.

Germany next offers itself to our view, a country divided into small states, so much intermixed, as to require a minute detail, which, however, would here be useless. The rod of Aaron devours the smaller serpents; and, at no great distance of time, perhaps, Germany may become Austria, Prussia, or France. After a very comprehensive and satisfactory general account, Mr. Pinkerton describes the German states to the north and to the south of the Mayn. Of the former, he only particularises Saxony, Hanover, Mecklenburg, and Brunswick, adding a short catalogue of the smaller states, and the ecclesiastical powers; of the latter, Bavaria and the Palatinate, Wurtemberg, Anspach, and Salzburg, with a catalogue of a few of the smaller and the ecclesiastic states. The account is, indeed, short, compared with the minute labour and extensive list of Busching; but it is fully sufficient, either for the geographer, or the scientific inquirer: the statist and the politician must have recourse to Busching or Hoeck.

Of the Italian states, the account is also short. Their political system is annihilated; and there remain only those striking features of nature, which from time may lose their sharpness, but which time itself cannot wholly destroy. The account is therefore more strictly geographical; and what authors have described is detailed in a masterly, comprehensive manner.



In this geographical view, Italy is divided into three parts—the southern or volcanic region, the middle or the Tiberine, and the northern or the Paduan.

The volume concludes with an Appendix, comprising the treaty of Campo Formio and Luneville; the treaty of Amiens; with some remarks on the Russian and Spanish pronunciation. The two first numbers are essential additions, as they have introduced very considerable changes in the political geography.

The second volume commences with Asia; and the general description is comprehensive and satisfactory. We see little to correct, and nothing to add. If any thing be less exact, it is perhaps not describing with sufficient precision the high ground in the centre, extending some degrees both of latitude and longitude, from which rivers of the greatest magnitude and importance arise, that fall into the Northern and the Indian Ocean, the Euxine and the Caspian seas. We mean not to say that this is omitted: but it is not placed in a view sufficiently striking; and it in part arises from the mountains being delineated after the rivers, an inadvertence formerly noticed. Had this fact been placed in a sufficiently prominent light, combined with the little we know of the nature of these mountains, it would have been at once seen, that, in such a quarter alone, could we with propriety look for the original situation of mankind. This must have been the first spot to have emerged from the water; and here only could we find those commanding rivers described in holy writ, as flowing from the garden of Eden. Mr. Pinkerton very properly agrees with Gosselin, in confining the geographical knowledge of the ancients on the east to the south-eastern promontory of Pegu, and limiting the eastern longitude of the Thinxæ. To this point he afterwards recurs more at length, and very satisfactorily.

‘ In arranging the extensive states of Asia, according to their population and relative consequence, the first and chief rank, beyond all comparison, must be assigned to the Chinese empire. But that prodigious domination being estranged from Europe, and having in no age exerted the smallest influence on its destinies, it seems preferable, in this instance, first to consider two powerful states, intimately blended with European policy. The Turkish empire in Asia constitutes a natural and easy transition from the description of Europe; and the Russian empire, though in population far inferior, yet in military and political force transcends that of China.

‘ From the Russian empire in Asia the transition is easy to that of China, a bordering state; after which shall be described Japan, and a new great power, the Birman empire. Hindostan and Persia being now divided into several distinct sovereignties, and Arabia containing many independent states, the scale of political importance becomes transitive and indistinct; and may justly yield in such cases to mere geographical arrangement. Hence the smaller states of India beyond the Ganges, or between Hindostan and China, will follow the Birman

empire, to which, or to China, they may perhaps soon be subjected. A western progress leads to Hindostan, Persia, and Arabia: and a short account of the various interesting and important islands in the Indian, and in the Pacific, oceans, will close this grand department of the work.' Vol. ii. p. 13.

Turkey and Russia in Asia have lately been often described; and nothing needs be added to what is generally known. Mr. Pinkerton compacts the information which travelers have given, very clearly: the latter country is delineated with peculiar precision and accuracy. Of Chinese Tartary, our knowledge is more limited; and what is known occurs in few writers. Even d'Anville is obliged to go back to Marco Polo. Our author would call the western part of this immense district, Tatar: the middle Mongolia, from the appellation of the greater number of the inhabitants; and the third Mandshuria, from its inhabitants. From this, as less known, we shall select an extract.

' Upon the whole this extensive region might more properly be called Mongolia, as the greater number of tribes are Monguls; or the western part might be styled Tatar, the middle Mongolia, and the eastern Mandshuria. The two latter are the objects of the present description; as that of Independent Tatar will be found after the account of Persia, with which it has (as now limited) in all ages been connected.

' This wide and interesting portion of Asia, which has repeatedly sent forth its swarms to deluge the arts and civilization of Europe, extends from the 72d° of longitude east from Greenwich to the 145th°, a space of not less than 73° of longitude, which at the medial latitude of 45° will yield about 3100 geographical miles. The breadth from the northern frontier of Tibet to the Russian confines is about 18 degrees, or 1080 geographical miles. The boundary towards Russia has been already described. From the treaty published by Du Halde it appears that the river Kerbetchi, being the nearest to the river Chorna (called by the natives Ourouon), and which discharges itself into the great river Sagalien Oula, was the Chinese definition of the boundary between the empires; to which were added the long chain of mountains above the source of the river Kerbetchi, and the river Ergone or Argoon. The eastern boundary is the sea, while the southern extends along the great Chinese wall, and the northern limits of Tibet. The western boundary is supplied by the celebrated mountains of Belur Tag or the Cloudy Mountains, which divide the Chinese empire from Balk, and the Greater Bucharia; while the range on the west of the Lake Palkati separates the Kalmucs, subject to China, from the Kirguses of Independent Tatar.

' The original population of central Asia appears to have been indigenal, so far as the most ancient records extend. Part of the west was held by the Scythæ of antiquity, seemingly a Gothic race, who were subdued or expelled by the Tatars or Huns from the east, pressed on the other side by the Monguls. Beyond the latter were the Mandshurs, who, though inferior to the Monguls in power, yet retained their



ancient possessions, and in the seventeenth century conquered China. At present the chief inhabitants are the Mandshurs of the eastern provinces; with the tribes denominated Kalkas, Eluts, and Kalmucs, who are Monguls as already mentioned. The information concerning central Asia is indeed very lame and defective; and though the late Russian travellers afford a few hints, yet the jealousy of the Chinese, and other causes, have contributed to prolong our ignorance concerning this interesting region.' Vol. ii. p. 116.

The religion of these Tartarian regions is nearly allied to that of Thibet: the population splendid, from the number of hordes, but scanty; and central Asia does not probably contain more than six millions.

' Though the parallel of central Asia correspond with that of France, and part of Spain, yet the height, and snows of the mountainous ridges occasion a degree, and continuance of cold, little to be expected from other circumstances. In climate and productions it is however far superior to Siberia.

' The appearance of this extensive region is diversified with all the grand features of nature, extensive chains of mountains, large rivers, and lakes. But the most singular feature is that vast elevated plain, supported like a table, by the mountains of Tibet in the south, and Altaian chain in the north, from the mountains of Belur Tag in the west, to those that bound the Kalkas in the east. This prodigious plain, the most elevated continuous region on the globe, is intersected by some chains of mountains, and by the vast deserts of Cobi and Shamo, by others considered as the same, the former being the Mongul, the latter the Chinese name. Destitute of plants and water it is dangerous for horses, but is safely passed with camels. Little has been added to our knowledge of central Asia since d'Anville drew up his maps, from the materials furnished by the Jesuits in China, in which it would seem that this desert extends from about the 80th° of E. longitude from Greenwich, to about the 110th°, being 30° of longitude, which in the latitude of 40°, may be 1380 geographical miles: but in this wide extent are Oases or fertile spots, and even regions of considerable extent. On the other hand the main desert sends forth several barren branches in various directions.' Vol. ii. p. 126.

The mountains seem to be on Nature's grandest scale; and the summit of the Caucasian chain is supposed to be higher than Mont Blanc. Their direction is chiefly from N. to S. The mountains in the centre on the north are in a direction seemingly from N.W. to S.E. Our author's disquisitions on this subject are curious, and contain all the direct, as well as the incidental, information that can be collected. Of the botany of this extensive country we are ignorant: yet, from the incidental observations of travellers, the common German plants are frequent; and it presents the singular appearance of a European Flora between the Siberian and Indian. The minerals are imperfectly known.

Of Thibet we knew little, till we received the journey of



captain Turner: but even at present our knowledge is limited and imperfect. The geography in particular has been vaguely and loosely detailed, so that the following remarks become important.

\* As Mr. Forster in his Travels observes that the material for the shawls of Cashmir is "brought from districts of Tibet, lying at the distance of a month's journey to the north east:" and as Tieffenthaler, in his account of Cashmir, specially mentions that Great Tibet is to the north east of that country, and Little Tibet to the N. W., there is every reason to infer that our maps are wholly defective in fixing the northern boundary of this country, which ought to be extended to the sources of the rivers of Little Bucharica, between the 37th and 38th degree of N. latitude. Tieffenthaler also mentions that the nearest route to Cashgar would be through Great Tibet, but, this not being permitted, the passage is through Little Tibet; the capital of which, Ascardu, is eight days journey from the N. limit of Cashmir. Further on is Schakar: and after travelling thence for fifteen days, through thick forests, appears the frontier of Little Tibet. In other fifteen days the caravan reaches Cashgar, formerly the residence of the prince; but it is now at Yarkand, ten days further to the north.

\* These clear testimonies of two intelligent travellers seem to evince that the northern boundary of Tibet may be safely extended two degrees further than it appears in our best maps, in which there is no portion of Great Tibet to the N. E. of Cashmir. It would seem that the Chinese Lamas, in their great haste to escape from the Eluts, who attacked Lassa, were contented with bare reports, not only concerning the sources of the Ganges, but the whole western provinces of Tibet. From their rude drawings d'Anville placed the northern limit of this country, (as well as of Cashmir) in lat.  $34^{\circ}$ ; and when major Rennell judiciously, but cautiously, moved it one degree further to the north, he might safely have extended it at least three degrees. The source of the Ganges stood in the Chinese map lat.  $29^{\circ}.30'$ : d'Anville found it indispensable to raise it to  $32^{\circ}$ , and Rennell to  $33^{\circ}.15'$ . Hence it appears that one radical defect, in that very imperfect and erroneous map, was the great diminution of the latitude. To fill up this deficiency geographers have here introduced the great Sandy Desert of Cobi; which, as appears from Marco Polo, and other travellers, is in the centre of Asia, corresponding in latitude with that of Shamo, on the N. of China, beginning near Yarkand, but spreading into a far wider expanse at the city of Lop, further to the E.' Vol. ii. p. 135.

Of Thibet, so far as it has been described by colonel Symes, we have already given an account; and of Japan, the travels of the faithful and intelligent Thunberg have furnished, in our journal, the supplement to what Kæmpfer had before generally diffused. We may say the same of the Birman empire, but must not omit to add our commendation of the form in which the information is here brought together, and the elegant, expressive energy of the language in which it is described. Of Malacca the account is short; and the Malays are given chiefly from Marsden, from Olearius, and Le Poivre.

Siam was principally known to Europe, from the accounts of the Portuguese: but its connexion with France carried the accurate and intelligent Loubere to this kingdom; and his description, with what colonel Symes has lately added, forms the substance of our present knowledge. Siam was the country of the ancient Sinæ, and the source of what the Romans and Greeks called silk. It was, however, a silky cotton; and we are pleased to see a confirmation of this circumstance, from the opinion of our very intelligent author. It has been more than once stated in this journal. The Romans may have had it from the Seres; or, what is more probable, the country of the Seres might have furnished a similar, though inferior, article. The manners of Siam are rather Hindostanic than Chinese: but, in the more eastern regions, the latter are most conspicuous. Cochin China is described at sufficient length: but, since the period of this publication, much has been added in the late volume of the Asiatic Annual Register, of which we have given an account.

To analyse Mr. Pinkerton's idea of Hindustan, neither would be easy, nor is indeed necessary. It is ably executed; and we shall only notice the opinions peculiar to the author, or the facts generally known. Of the first kind are the following; and the arguments seem very satisfactory.

‘ One of the most important ancient records is the description and map of Ptolemy, but they are so much distorted as to embarrass the most learned enquirer. Far from representing India in its just form, as stretching far to the south, he supposes the ocean to flow from the gulph of Cambay, almost in a line to the lake of Chilka, thus immersing under the waves a third part of Hindostan. At the same time he assigns to the island of Taprobana, or Ceylon, an enormous and fabulous extent. This, the most singular error of his whole system, has been attempted to be explained by M. Gossellin, who supposes that the Taprobana of Ptolemy is the Deccan, or southern part of Hindostan, from Surat to Cape Comorin, a strait being supposed to pass from the gulph of Cambay to the eastern shore of Orissa: and he infers that some of the ancients believed in this strait. The idea is ingenious, and ably illustrated, yet is far from being satisfactory.

1. Ptolemy's map of Taprobana is a tolerable just representation of Ceylon; and the numerous islands which he places near it are the Maldives; which, in a fair acceptance of his sense, must have been much further to the north, to have corresponded with Gossellin's opinion. The Ganges of Taprobana is the Mowil Ganga of Ceylon: the Soana, in the west, may also have a corresponding modern name, but cannot be the Soan which runs to the east into the Great Ganges. 2. Taprobana is thinly peopled with a few tribes, unknown in ancient descriptions of India: and the whole form, and central ridge of mountains bear no resemblance whatever to the Deccan, but on the contrary approximate nearly to those of Ceylon. 3. The long strait mentioned by Gossellin, is unknown in the map of Ptolemy, which on the contrary rather justly represents the sea between the coast of Coro-



mandel and Ceylon, and his isle of Cory seems to be that now corruptly called Cow island: on the contrary a long strait must have been necessary, if Ptolemy had intended the Deccan, which is far wider in the north, than in the south; whereas Taprobana is represented narrower, like Ceylon. 4. The Commaria of Ptolemy seems palpably to represent Cape Comari, or Comorin, and that geographer justly adds that it is an extreme promontory; in like manner other rivers, regions, towns, &c. may be traced in Ptolemy's India, which really belonged to the Deccan, though the latitudes be very erroneous.' Vol. ii. p. 243.

We meet with an early instance of peculiar opinions: but the observations are too ingenious to be overlooked, and too judicious to be despised.

'The Hindoo epochs consisting of millions of years, and other fabulous circumstances, have hitherto attracted more attention than a clear arrangement of the Hindoo sovereignties, and an account of the most authentic facts that can be recovered concerning them. While these chronologies differ by one or two thousand years concerning the incarnation of Buddha, we may judge of their exactness in less important events. Nor is it necessary to dwell on the children of the sun and moon, who reigned at Audh and Vitora; or the new dynasty of Magadha, or Bahar. The seventy-six princes, who are said to have reigned one thousand three hundred and ninety-nine years in Avabhriti, a town of Dacshin, or south, which we commonly call Deccan, are slightly mentioned by sir William Jones, who, with all his learning and talents, appears to be bewildered in the mist of Sanscrit mythological history.

'Suffice it to observe that the Hindoos never seem to have boasted of one native historian, and the best materials are derived from Persian memoirs; from which Ferishta, himself a Persian, compiled his histories of Hindostan towards the beginning of the seventeenth century. Indeed in the whole complex maze of Hindoo literature there is a striking deficiency of good sense. The more we are acquainted with Indian philosophy, the less veneration we entertain; and are led to infer that the admiration of the ancients was rather excited by the singularity than by the wisdom of the Brahmans. The heat, and other peculiar circumstances, of the climate have confessedly a degrading influence on the mind, which instead of bearing solid fruits here shoots into fantastic flowers. The political institutions must have been originally bad, as the great mass of the people was oppressed by one or two privileged casts, whence the dispirited natives were conquered by every invader. And the absurd philosophy of the Brahmans, for that philosophy must be absurd which delights in mythological dreams, the most fanatical practices, and common suicide; which may be said to crush all genius or exertion, by the oppressive chains of cast, unknown to nature and providence: which has never in peace or war produced one man distinguished by super-eminent talents; such philosophy must be considered as far inferior to the plain good sense even of some other Asiatic nations. In short the history of Hindostan has only to be contrasted with that of China, to evince the superiority of practical good sense over theoretic wisdom and philosophy, which are often mere



hotbeds of new eccentricities and follies. And though mankind have in all ages wondered at the singularities of the Indian sophists, yet not one general precept of wisdom, not one rule for the conduct of life, not one discovery generally useful to mankind, can be traced to that celebrated and miserable country, where passive millions drag a feeble existence under the iron rod of a few crafty casts, amidst a climate and a soil almost paradisaical, and where it seemed impossible for human malignity to have introduced general degradation and distress.\* Vol. ii. p. 247.

The arrangement is similar to that of the geography of Germany. The author first gives a comprehensive view of the whole region. He then treats of the country on the Ganges; secondly, of that on the Indus; and thirdly, the central and southerly tract. Each of these sections contains what has hitherto been related by modern travelers, interspersed with judicious, and occasionally with somewhat singular, remarks. Our opinions on some of these subjects do not entirely coincide with Mr. Pinkerton's. We must, however, hasten on. Ceylon is next described at some length: but various representations, since the appearance of the present work, have met the public eye.—One of these, that of Mr. Percival, is under consideration.

Persia is given chiefly from the writings of Chardin and Gmelin, of Franklin and Hanway. What relates to its mountains, and the direction of the principal chains, is most interesting in a geographic view: but the description, though executed with Mr. Pinkerton's usual ability, offers nothing that leads to any inquiry; and no passage occurs so interesting, as to induce us to select it.

Independent Tartary, once under the rule of the Greek monarchs of Bactriana, distinguished by the wide empire of Timur and Zinges, and celebrated as the birth-place of Zoroaster, is now little known. Its geography is in a very uncertain, imperfect, state; and our author's disquisitions on this part are interesting and curious. The description is taken, with due care, from the best sources, but will afford little entertainment or instruction in an abstract.—Arabia is examined with the author's usual felicity of luminous description, chiefly under

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\* A writer in the *Asiatic Researches* (vi. 163.), after observing that the worship of Boodha extended over all Hindustan, and was not rooted out in the Deccan till about the twelfth century by the Bramins, who are the real heretics, and far from introducing any reformation have increased all the absurdities and puerilities a thousand fold, proceeds to give the following just character of those visionary sophists. "No useful science have the Brahmins diffused among their followers; history they have totally abolished; morality they have depressed to the utmost; and the dignity and power of the altar they have erected on the ruins of the state, and the rights of the subject. Even the laws attributed to Menu, which, under the form in use among the Burmas, are not ill-suited for the purpose of an absolute monarchy, under the hands of the Brahmins have become the most abominable and degrading system of oppression, ever invented by the craft of designing men."

the guidance of the faithful Niebuhr. The whole country, though invincible, at least unconquered, does not however afford many circumstances of novelty which it would be necessary to enlarge on at this time.

The Asiatic Islands next claim attention; and Mr. Pinkerton seems still to lean to his former idea of New Holland forming a continent, dividing the Asiatic isles from a group, connected under the term *Polynesia*. The question is trifling; and we see no reason for altering the opinion we formerly offered on this subject. We have so lately, with successive authors, traced these islands, that we shall not even stay to enumerate them. It is only necessary to add that geography is an increasing subject, growing under the hand, extending its limits in the moment when we think them definitely pointed out; and that it is not disgraceful to our author to say that much information has occurred subsequent to his publication. His account, however, is sufficiently full and satisfactory.

Of New Holland, the description, our author suspects, may seem too extensive: but he adds that it is a new continent, a real Terra Australis now little known, which in the year 2000 may produce a sufficient subject for a large volume. It is singular, however, that the numerous flowers, the many splendid birds, and some useful trees, are but partially noticed, in a general view of the whole. When we found that the recent discoveries of Mr. Bass and lieut. Flinders were laid down in the map and described, we were somewhat surprised that not the slightest suspicion was suggested, from the extent of the unexplored coast on the south, and the very loose examination of the other coasts, that New Holland might be a cluster of islands. The idea of an additional continent seems to have filled our author's mind, and excluded every other. The natives of Australasia, as we have occasionally observed, are of a very inferior race, both with respect to their mental and bodily accomplishments: indeed, in many respects, they scarcely rise above the monkey-tribes; and it is highly probable, as our author suggests, that the natives of New Holland and Papua are of African origin, while those of the other Asiatic islands are from Asia. Are then the Africans an inferior species?—Natural history has often been thought to tell us so, and sacred Scripture as often not to contradict it.

The subject of America, if pursued, would alone employ an article. We must, therefore, only notice the facts and opinions of importance. Mr. Pinkerton gives the whole honour of the discovery to Columbus, if we except the Norwegian expedition to Vinland; and explains the appearances on Behaim's globe and Biancho's map very satisfactorily. The following remarks on Baffin's Bay are new.

' In 1616 some public spirited gentlemen sent captain Bilot to a t-



tempt a N. W. passage. Willam Baffin sailed with him as pilot : and this voyage is one of the most singular in the whole circle of geography. Far exceeding the utmost stretch of Davis, they discovered Horn Sound, Cape Dudley Diggs, Hakluyt Island, Sir Thomas Smith's Sound, Cary's Islands, Alderman Jones's Sound and Sir James Lancaster's Sound; all of them totally unknown to any preceding or succeeding navigator. Baffin thus pretended that he had, in an inland and a narrow sea, (which, to increase the absurdity, is laid down in our maps with all its shores, a matter never before attempted from a first and imperfect visit,) proceeded to the latitude of more than  $78^{\circ}$ , while captain Cook, the most skilful of modern navigators, could not exceed  $72^{\circ}$ , in the open arctic ocean, and Davis himself was stopped at  $72^{\circ}$ , in this very sea, supposed to be inland, while it is probably only part of that ocean. It is further remarkable that this voyage is very imperfectly known from Baffin's relation published by Purchas; and all the charts and maps of this pretended bay, have been merely laid down from the observations contained in his journal; for if Baffin made any chart it was not published by Purchas. It is perhaps equally remarkable that no doubt seems yet to have been entertained concerning the existence of Baffin's Bay; while it is not improbable that he is merely a bold impostor, who wished to recommend himself to his employers, by the pretence of having imposed their names on grand and important features of nature, and by his numerous sounds, to have laid a scheme for drawing more money from his protectors, for the investigation of a N. W. passage. Yet it would seem that strong doubts prevailed even at the time, for these supposed discoveries were entirely neglected.

'Supposing that Baffin's Bay were dismissed from our maps, it is probable that Greenland is a continuation of the continent, and spreads to the W. about lat.  $75^{\circ}$ : or it may be detached land, like New Holland, extending towards the pole. The general line of the arctic sea in this quarter, as seen by Mr. Hearne 1772, and Mr. Mackenzie 1789, is about lat.  $70^{\circ}$ ; and it is not improbable that at a little higher latitude it coalesces with what is called Baffin's Bay; in which case Greenland is a detached land, and the country on the north of Hudson's Bay consists of several large islands in the arctic ocean.' Vol. ii. p. 532.

The population of America our author is inclined to deduce from Africa, rather than Asia, perhaps with reason: yet we still think the legislator of the Mexicans to have been an Asiatic, as well, probably, as the larger number of that nation—the Peruvians and the Chilese. We find it, however, impossible to engage in the slightest detail of our author's remarks; and as we have, in our late volumes, enlarged on the subject with Morse, Bartram, Weld, and Liancourt — Mr. Pinkerton's chief authorities — we may be allowed to hasten on. What he has collected from these sources is detailed with much judgement and spirit. Numerous observations are peculiarly his own.

The Spanish possessions in North-America include Califor-



nia, Mexico—which properly belongs to this part of the continent—the Floridas, and Louisiana, now ceded to the American states. These are described with the author's usual ability, from the best authorities.

The British possessions next follow: but the western coast, and the regions around Hudson's Bay, Labrador, Cape Breton, and Greenland, are, 'from the intense severity of the climate, declared free by nature,' and considered under the title of unconquered countries. The western coast, and the internal parts of the North-American continent, are then described: but these, also, have been very lately the subject of our particular remarks.

The Windward and the Leeward islands, with the vast continent of South-America, follow. On the latter subject we find many interesting geographic remarks from a paper of Humboldt, which we formerly noticed, as it occurred to us in the *Annales de Chimie*. We may expect, however, to receive a more particular account from himself, as his return is supposed to be not very distant. The description of the Spanish, Portuguese, French, and Dutch possessions, particularly of the former, contains much curious information, but no particular object to arrest our present attention. The account of the native tribes is short; and one prominent people, the Abisons, alone engage our notice among numerous hordes raised into importance by the appellation of nations. The Patagonians are a wandering tribe of mountaineers, the Tatars of South-America. The islands belonging to this quarter of the globe are of little importance. Juan Fernandez, the Falkland islands, and the Terra del Fuego, we are sufficiently acquainted with. The others, including the southern Thule, are wholly uninteresting.

Africa, if not the largest part of the globe, is that which was very anciently known, and excited the wonder and admiration of Rome, while modern refinement has supposed it the parent of arts and sciences, which, except from conquerors and colonists, it never possessed. It employs, however, but little of Mr. Pinkerton's attention: indeed, it deserves but little. On its western coast, the voyage of Hanno has been cited by the admirers of antiquity, as a nautical adventure, which might be put in competition with the discoveries of Drake or Cook, but which Gosselin has limited within narrow bounds, considering it terminated at Cape Nun, and which even Mr. Pinkerton, less favourable in this respect to Gosselin, is not willing to extend beyond Cape Blanco. On its eastern coast, the knowledge of the ancients was confined by the Isle of Pemba, at 5° of south latitude. The discoveries of Barrow and Park furnish the chief geographic accounts, assisted by the incidental circumstances which contribute to elucidate the geography of Ptolemy;



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and our author is not willing to allow the Abyssinian fountains, examined by Bruce, to be the true head of the Nile, which, with d'Anville, he carries further to the west.

Abyssinia, one of the most famous African districts, is apparently peopled from the Arabian coast. The little we know of the kingdom is copied from Alvarez, from Ludolph, from Lobo, and, somewhat reluctantly, from Bruce, to whom our author is very unfavourable; we had almost said unjust. Of Egypt, of Nubia, and the Mahometan states in the north, viz. Tripoli, Tunis, Algiers, and Morocco, it is not easy to offer any thing new.

Our author next proceeds to the western coasts, to the southern promontory, the Cape of Good Hope, to the eastern regions, and to the central parts. On the south, he chiefly copies from Barrow; and he could not have a securer guide. The African islands, on the east and west, are also particularly described; and, of the central parts, except what we learn from Mr. Park's Travels, from the descriptions of Ptolemy, from the accounts, sometimes the errors, of Edrisi, much at least is conjecture.

Such is a work which forms an æra in geography, fixes a standard of excellence in animated description, as well as in philosophical research; which perhaps errs only in neglect of arrangement, in the lucid order which contributes to our satisfaction and instruction, fixing isolated facts on the mind, and giving a combination to miscellaneous circumstances. That the author is not at times fanciful, and perhaps prejudiced, we will not contend: but, with such varied excellencies, his little faults can scarcely be beheld as blemishes; and, should he be hereafter excelled, he will always have the merit of having rescued geography from dry, inconsequential, description, from a muster-roll of names; of having united it to natural history and to natural philosophy, to nature and common sense.

ART. IX.—*A practical Treatise of Perspective, on the Principles of Dr. Brook Taylor. By Edward Edwards, Associate and Teacher of Perspective in the Royal Academy.* 4to. 11. 14s. Boards. Leigh, Sotheby and Son. 1803.

TREATISES on this subject have been so numerous that some apology may be necessary for the publication of another. Mr. Edwards's reasons are satisfactory; but we shall, nevertheless, add a little to their force, and shall explain them at a somewhat greater length. The first idea entertained of perspective, or representing objects on canvas as they appear to the eye, was truly ingenious; and it occurs in some of the earliest authors whose works have reached us, and who probably borrowed



it from those of a still earlier æra. If we look at an object through a pane of glass, and copy on the glass the corresponding lines as they appear to the eye, the picture thence transferred to paper will be a faithful copy of the impression on the visual organs. In the *camera obscura* this simple experiment is carried one step further; the image is conveyed to a plane mirror, and, from it, thrown on the paper below, and the lines are then traced with ease. The early writers, from this experiment, drew conclusions which they brought together in the form of rules, but without knowing or explaining their foundation. The earliest work which contained the principles of the science, but not developed with a scientific precision or sufficient minuteness, was published at Pisaro by Ubaldi, an Italian, in the year 1600. The fame of this author, however, has been eclipsed by the labours of Dr. Brook Taylor, who first gave perspective the form of a science, and founded it on the secure basis of geometric demonstration. His *Linear Perspective* was published in 1715, and his *New Principles*, designed as an explanation of his former work, in 1719. The re-publication however, by Colson, in 1749, is the edition generally preferred. To Mr. Emerson, also, this science is greatly indebted; and his treatise, at the end of his *Optics*, is a very valuable one. Mr. Emerson, however, was not happy in his explanations. His works are certainly profound, but somewhat too abstruse for learners. It will be obvious, then, that the authors, so far, may be arranged in two classes—those who rested on rules founded on observation, and those who explained the science on mathematical principles. The former were loose and vague in their illustrations, the latter too abstruse. The system, however, of Dr. Taylor has been in constant estimation, though his name has been bandied, *ad fastidium usque*, by those who have never perused his work, or been able to understand it if they had; and the constant repetition reminds us of Pietro Perugino in the Vicar of Wakefield. If an author assume a scientific gravity, speak of vanishing points and lines, prime verticals, &c., and quote Dr. Brook Taylor, he is immediately considered as a scientific instructor in perspective.

Since the period we now speak of, several writers on this science have appeared; but their works are sometimes too splendid and expensive; in some instances too short and unsatisfactory. Mr. Malton's late work is said to 'contain some excellent and masterly examples;' but it is added that 'he has destroyed their utility, by entangling the vanishing points, and crossing the diagrams, in so confused a manner, that it is almost impossible for a young practitioner to trace and distinguish the different figures.'

\* These faults, which are too frequent in books of instruction, have arisen from two causes; the first is, that the authors of them, though

perfect masters of the science on which they wrote, had not acquired the art of explaining it to those who are unacquainted with it; they seem also to have forgotten, that those who would instruct, must descend to that language for explanation, and apply those figures for illustration, which are suitable to the powers and comprehension of their pupil, rather than to the display of their own science and abilities.

The second cause of the defects before mentioned arises from the following circumstance; which is, that excepting Pozzo and Highmore, there is no author who has written on the subject of perspective, that can be considered as a painter; consequently they were deficient in the knowledge of the forms of objects, and thereby unable to apply their science to the uses required by the artist.

Having experienced and considered the disadvantages before mentioned, the author presumed to think that a work might be produced, better calculated than any one that has hitherto appeared, for the service of those artists who have neither time nor resolution sufficient to investigate the science of perspective, under its present obscurities and difficulties. Whether the following treatise, which he has attempted in conformity to his idea, will answer the end proposed, must be left to the reader to determine.

The arrangement of the work is as follows:

As a preliminary apparatus, a selection of definitions and problems in geometry is given, all of which are absolutely necessary to be understood by those who mean to practise perspective; they are inserted not to increase the size of the volume, but that the student may not be compelled to seek for other books before he can make use of this.

After the Geometry follows the Perspective, which is divided into six sections:

The first is introductory, and contains all the terms that are employed in the practice; together with their definitions, illustrated by proper examples; the difference between the centre of the picture and point of sight is defined; and the various positions in which objects may be disposed to the picture; it also contains the rudiments of practice for lines, parallel and perpendicular, to the picture.

The second section contains instructions, with examples for drawing objects, the fronts and sides of which are parallel and perpendicular to the picture.

The third section treats of objects, the fronts of which are inclined to the picture.

In the fourth section are examples, with instructions for delineating objects, when the planes or faces of which they are composed are inclined both to the picture and to the horizon.

It must be observed, that the aforementioned sections contain all the practical principles necessary for the delineation of objects in perspective, however their different planes may be disposed to the eye of the spectator.

The fifth section treats of shadows, in which the author has attempted to explain the leading principles of that part of the science in the clearest manner he was able; but whatever his success may have been, it must not be expected that this part can be clear and easy to those who do not well understand the preceding sections of



the work; therefore the student must make himself master of those, before he attempts shadows.

The sixth and last section contains methods for facilitating operations in difficult cases, as also some theoretic instructions, together with observations by way of praxis; all of which will be found extremely useful to the student.

In the technical language of the science, the terms adopted by Dr. Brook Taylor are united with those employed by the old writers on perspective, by which means it is expected that the study of the science will be facilitated to those who chuse to refer to the works of that great master and his principal successors.

In the plates are selected the most useful and familiar examples, such as are most generally wanted in the common course of practice, yet such as will include all the positions in which objects may be placed to the picture or spectator; omitting the inclined picture, for which the student is referred to the senior Malton, Hamilton, &c.

Most of the examples are drawn to a scale, the use of which is explained in the first section, and applied in most of the following. This circumstance has never before been attended to by writers on the subject; and therefore it may be hoped, that this will operate as an improvement, and greatly facilitate the study of the science in its practical part: but the reader must observe, that the author does not mean to offer any new method of process, founded on any superior theory of the science; he only wishes to teach the readiest mode of practice, directed by the principles of Dr. Brook Taylor, whose writings on perspective are certainly the *ne plus ultra* of the science, and do infinite honour to his country.' p. vi.

This very full and clear account of the author's labours, from his own pen, may be perhaps preferable to any analysis from ours. The omission of the inclined picture we regret, as it would have rendered this popular work more perfect. We trust it will be added in another edition.

The treatise before us is easy and practical. The little knowledge of geometry necessary for an interpretation of the terms, &c. is prefixed; and the subject is chiefly explained by examples, illustrated by plates equally lucid and precise. If the reader have a sufficient knowledge of geometry to comprehend Dr. Taylor's reasoning, and come with this preparation to the present volume, he will acquire a peculiarly accurate and clear knowledge of the whole subject; and we do not recollect that more than an acquaintance with the Elements of Euclid is necessary for the study of Dr. Taylor's work. Many years have, however, elapsed since we perused it, and we may not be exact on this subject, though we believe that we are so; yet we cannot turn to it at present. We cannot give a proper specimen of a work depending so entirely on the diagrams; and the little *incuriæ* which have occurred to us are so trifling that they do not lessen the value of the instructions, which we would cheer-



fully recommend to the student, as equally explicit, precise, and judicious.

The appendix contains a discourse on the application of the science of perspective in the composition of a picture. In this discourse we meet with many judicious remarks, though they are seldom new. As a specimen, we shall transcribe our author's recapitulation of his rules for the historical and portrait painter.

' First. The horizontal line must always correspond with the supposed height of the spectator's eye, which would generally be in the same horizontal plane with the eye of some of the figures in the tablature.

' Secondly. The centre of the picture, or what is vulgarly called the point of sight, should always be placed exactly opposite the station in which the spectator is supposed to stand, and view the piece; and this disposition should always be as near the middle of the horizontal line as possible.

' Thirdly. The figures should be proportioned to each other by the given rules, and their stations on the floor or plane of situation, should be accounted for with accuracy.

' Fourthly. The architecture and buildings, especially the interior representations, should always be disposed parallel to the picture; which will consequently give the centre of the picture, for the vanishing point of the returning sides of those buildings.

' Fifthly. The architecture in all cases should be proportioned to the figures, and constructed from a regular plan, so that the parts seen should indicate consistency, uniformity, and connexion with the parts not seen.

' These rules are so absolute, that the student may be assured, if they are not strictly attended to, his figures will appear to be jumbled together like pasteboard puppets, his buildings and architecture will be false and incongruous, and serve only to evince his want of skill and poverty of taste.' p. 291.

' First. The horizontal line should never be depressed below the knees of the figure.

' Secondly. The centre of the picture must always be somewhere in the figure, if single; if a group, nearly in the middle.

' Thirdly. All the objects which are introduced into the back ground of a portrait, should be disposed parallel to the picture; or, if a seat or pedestal must of necessity be inclined, that inclination should be as little as possible; and all the architectural decorations should be clearly defined and arranged by some plan agreeably to the instructions already given concerning historical composition.' p. 295.

Mr. Edwards's advice is next addressed to the landscape-painter and the architect. The remarks on the designs and drawings of the latter merit notice.

' The architect should always be possessed of the science of perspective, and that in no trifling degree; for by its assistance he will be enabled to determine with himself, and to demonstrate to others,

the future effects of his designs and drawings, whenever he is employed to erect buildings.

‘ But the practice of making geometrical or orthographical drawings, is by custom so firmly established among the architects, that little hope can be entertained of introducing any other mode of drawing their designs. Yet, in consequence of this general practice, many able men have found themselves deceived when they saw those designs executed; while their disappointment was no more than a natural effect of the established practice: for in the orthographical or geometrical drawing, all the parts are described equally prominent and visible, as well those which recede as those which project; but in the building, the parts which recede will appear lower than those which project; they will even be sometimes concealed, if viewed from certain points; which circumstance leads to another observation, that will encourage the architect in the practice and study of perspective.’  
P. 301.

Some observations addressed to the sculptor are added. Mr. Edwards advises the artist to range his figures processionally, without any attempts at perspective, which renders the groupe confused, as the artist has not the assistance of either shadows or colours. A knowledge of perspective, however, is necessary for the proportion of the figures, and for the disposition of seats and ornaments; and care should be taken to make the horizon below the heads of the persons represented.

**ART. X.**—*Travels in Upper and Lower Egypt, during the Campaigns of General Bonaparte. By Vivant Denon. Translated from the French. To which is prefixed, an historical Account of the Invasion of Egypt by the French. By E. A. Kendal, Esq. Illustrated by Maps, Views, &c. &c. 2 Vols. 8vo. 2l. 2s. Boards. Crosby and Co. 1802.*

**ART. XI.**—*Travels in Upper and Lower Egypt, in Company with several Divisions of the French Army, during the Campaigns of General Bonaparte in that Country; and published under his immediate Patronage, by Vivant Denon. Embellished with numerous Engravings. Translated by Arthur Aikin. 3 Vols. 8vo. 2l. 2s. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1803.*

**ART. XII.**—*Travels in Upper and Lower Egypt, in Company with several Divisions of the French Army, under the Command of General Bonaparte. By Vivant Denon. Embellished with Maps, Plates, Vignettes, &c. Translated, without Abridgement, from the original Folio Edition. By F. Blagdon, Esq. 2 Vols. 8vo. Large Paper 14s. Small Paper 10s. Boards. Ridgeway. 1803.*

WE lately introduced Denon's Travels in their original dress, and with their most authentic illustrations; and we purposely



left him for a time, having gratified the public curiosity, and offered those opinions which the examination of the work suggested. Even at present little remains but to add our author's further observations, particularly on the ruins of Upper Egypt, and a comparative view of the merits of his three rival translators.

We quitted M. Denon, after the battle of the Pyramids, as he was returning with Menou to Rosetta: but Lower Egypt is now become ground repeatedly trodden, again and again described. The life of the Arab, a prey to the Sheick, the Bey, and the Mameluke, is filled with suspicion and terror. He appears poor, that he may preserve a useless hoard, while he deprives himself of those enjoyments which money might procure. The inhabitants of Lower Egypt are the objects of his hostility and revenge: but he never crosses the Nile; so that those of the left bank of the river, less harassed by his attacks, are more refined and sociable than the dwellers on the right. The Arabs attacked the French, it is *said*, because their object was pillage; but, in reality, because the French carried on a mean plundering warfare. The English were comparatively respected; and, indeed, the prisoners, even of the French, were not treated with peculiar severity. Our author witnessed, at a distance, the battle of Aboukir; and his description, accompanied with all the circumstances of horror added to doubt—for he knew not who were the victors—is very interesting. In his tour in the neighbourhood of Rosetta, he had an opportunity of seeing the conflicts between the current of the river and the sea; which seems to explain, in his opinion, the accumulation of the sands that form the Delta.

Lower Egypt is described with all the luxuriance of Savary; and the supplies from Upper Egypt offer every delicacy which the *bon vivant* can require. The speculators, the idle, and the contractors, were alone disappointed; and it was these only, adds our author with matchless audacity, who sent home the gloomy narratives intercepted and published by the English.

To the westward of Aboukir, M. Denon found some antique remains, which, from imagination, are formed into fragments of statues of peculiar antiquity and interest. We say 'from imagination,' because, on merely beholding the remains of a hand, he determines, from the position of the finger, that it was a part of the statue of Isis embracing a nilometer. The first finger, fourteen inches in length, was decided to belong to a statue thirty-six feet in height; and, with these remains, were also those of a Sphinx, of which the head and fore-legs were separated from the trunk. Whether the same fancy drew the portraits of the different nations which our author saw at Rashid (Rosetta), we know not: we shall, however, copy them from the first (Mr. Kendal's) translation.



‘Obliged to confine his observations to objects immediately around him, he noticed the facility with which, amid the variety of figures, the several races of people which inhabited Rashid might be distinguished from each other. He concluded that this town, a staple of commerce, must necessarily be a point of union between all the nations which are spread over the soil of Egypt, and must preserve them with more distinctness, and more originality of character than a large city, like Kaira, where they are mixed and corrupted by the relaxation of manners. He believed that he clearly recognised in the Copt, the old Egyptian stock, a sort of tawny Nubian, resembling the ancient sculpture of the country, with a flat face, and hair half woolly, eyes half open, and turned upward at the angles. high cheeks, a nose rather short than flat, a wide and flat mouth, at a distance from the nose, and bordered with large lips, a beard short and scanty, little grace in the person, bowed legs, without a flowing contour, and toes and fingers long and flat.’ Vol. i. p. 67.

‘After the Copts come the Arabs, the most numerous of the inhabitants of modern Egypt. Without having the more influence for their importance, they seem to be placed in Egypt to people the country, to cultivate the ground, to guard the flocks, to be its animals themselves: nevertheless, they are full of fire and expression. Their eyes, sunk and almost hid, glisten with activity and character; all their lines are angular; their beard short, with pointed locks; their lips small, open, and discovering fine teeth; their arms muscular; and all the rest more agile than beautiful, more nervous than well proportioned. It is in the fields, and still more in the Arabs of the desert, that these characteristic traits may be most decidedly perceived. Three very different classes of Arabs, however, must be distinguished: the pastor, or shepherd, who appears to be the original stock, and in whom the traits that have just been described are seen; the bedûin, or wanderer, on whom the state of warfare and lofty dependence in which he lives, bestows a wild haughtiness of character; and the cultivator, or husbandman, the most civilized, the most corrupted, the most subjugated, in consequence the most debased, the most varied in form and character, of the three; as may be seen in the shechs, or chiefs of villages, the fellahs, or farmers, the fakirs, or beggars, and, to conclude, in the manufacturers, who form the most abject class of the whole.’ Vol. i. p. 68.

The Greeks are described, as possessing all the subtlety of their nation, sharpened by the oppressions they have experienced, and desirous of a revolution. The Jews are said to be ‘hated without being feared, despised and repulsed, without being driven away.’

‘Another race of men, consisting of numerous individuals, is marked by very characteristic traits; and this is the people of Barabra, natives of the upper country or Nubia, and the frontiers of the Habbesh, or Abyssinia. In these burning climates, frugal nature has bestowed nothing superfluous. The Barabrans have neither fat nor flesh; no-

thing but nerves, muscles, and tendons, more elastic than strong; they do by activity and swiftness what others do by power. It would seem as if their arid soil had absorbed the portion of substance which nature owed them. Their glossy skin is of a deep transparent black. They bear most resemblance to the negroes, or natives of the west of Africa. Their eyes are sunk and brilliant, and surmounted by elliptic eyebrows; their nostrils are large; their nose pointed; their mouth wide, without thick lips; their hair and beards scanty, and in little curls. Wrinkled early in life, but agile to its latest period, age manifests itself only by the whiteness of their beards. Their bodies continue lank and nervous. Their phy. ~~log~~gnomy is cheerful; they are active and well disposed. They are ordinarily employed as guards of magazines and timber-yards. They are clothed with a piece of white woollen cloth; they earn little; subsist on almost nothing; and serve their master with attachment and fidelity.' Vol. i. p. 71.

In the excursions around Rosetta, and indeed in every part of these volumes, we see in the inhabitants the most rooted hatred of the French, disguised by eastern dissimulation, fully justified by the cruel and oppressive treatment they received. The enormities are ill concealed by this historian of Bonaparte; and, had not Italy, Germany, Holland, and Switzerland, existed, would have marked this horde of ruffians with the blackest crimes. The country-house of Murad Bey in the suburbs of Cairo, is described with oriental hyperbole; and the author thence advances to the pyramids, under the protection of a detachment of two hundred soldiers, performing a journey which an Englishman alone, or with a single companion, has often undertaken, and safely completed. The pyramids have been frequently described; and our author's very hasty onset adds nothing to our former knowledge. The insurrection at Cairo, the mummies of Ibis, and the tricks of the Psylli, are not at this time particularly interesting.

M. Denon went to the south with a convoy, sent to general Dessaix. The pyramids of Ghiza and Sacchara, he thinks, point out a necropolis at either extremity of the ancient Memphis, so that this city must have exceeded four leagues in length. He proceeded to Upper Egypt; and various cruelties and enormities are related with the utmost coolness, as common transactions. Denon, however, seems to give a faithful account of the military events, though some exaggeration, in favour of his own countrymen, will not surprise those who have examined the dispatches of their different generals.

In the province of Fiaume, the eastern mountains decline; and the Nile, carried in an artificial canal, far above it, threatens to overwhelm the valley, and form a lake. This leads our author into an examination of the probable course of the river at an early period; and the disquisition, though ingenious, must be conjectural only; for he traces the Nile from the period when the present Delta was a sea: but, even in the time of Herodotus,



this æra was so remote, as to be almost a fabulous legend. In Egypt, he remarks, nature is not only charming, but admirable; and he still describes its appearance, and varied productions, in the glowing language of Savary. The pyramid of Hilihun, situated at the entrance of Fiaume, he suspects to be that of Mendes; and the canal of Bathen to be the Lake Mœris. This is apparently an artificial work, while the Lake Berket-el Kerun, the Mœris of Strabo and Ptolemy, is more clearly natural.

We need not again stop, till we reach Hermopolis, for there the ancient portico attracts our author's particular attention; and it has that grand imposing aspect, which so powerfully excites our sublimest feelings and our warmest admiration—admiration, not lessened by reflecting that it has braved the chances and accidents of four thousand years, without any sensible or material injury. The temple of Hermopolis is equally superb and colossal. The diameter of the columns is eight feet ten inches: their distance twelve feet: the whole one hundred and twelve feet; and the height sixty. A drawing, it is remarked, may sometimes give an air of greatness to little things, but it always diminishes the effects of great objects; perhaps for this reason, that, of the latter, the whole, or even the proportions, can be seldom retained. The capitals, on paper, may appear too massive for their bases; but the awe which they inspire disarms criticism: the whole is so magnificent, that we cannot minutely investigate the symmetry in detail.

At Lycopolis, Denon met the Libyan Chain, which he found to be calcareous in horizontal strata, 'divided at intervals, with (*by*) large mammellated and concentric flints, which appear to be the nuclei, or, as it were, the bones of this vast chain' (Aikin). There are few remains of a town in this spot: but the numerous tombs seem to show at least a considerable population at an early period. Tombs, as Denon observes, were temples; and a single structure was designed for a whole race, so that much labour and expense were employed in its decorations. In this place, one tomb, which he visited, and has described, was finished with great care; and the ornaments were in the best Grecian taste, which seems to show no very high antiquity. In this neighbourhood there are numerous excavations, supposed to be the abodes of pious hermits; and they may have been so: but we think, with Bruce, that they were originally designed for common habitations.

The journey through the desert, with the short account of the red and white convents, need not detain us, as we have already had occasion to notice them, under a more intelligent guide, who was less rapid in his motions, and more capable of observing at his leisure. At Girgeh, the capital of Upper Egypt, our author met a Nubian prince, brother to the king of



**Darfur.** The account this young chieftain gave, though not highly satisfactory, is interesting, and deserves notice. Our readers will remark, that the river of Tombuctoo runs *westward*; so that it cannot be the Niger; nor from the same circumstance, or from its latitude, can it be the Nubian source of the Nile.

‘ He was bringing to Cairo elephants’ teeth and gold dust, to barter against coffee, sugar, shawls, cloth, lead, iron, senna, and tamarinds. We had a long conversation with this young prince, who was lively, gay, impetuous, and clever, all of which were shewn in his physiognomy: his colour was deeper than bronze, his eyes very fine and well set, his nose somewhat turned up and small, his mouth very wide but not flat, and his legs, like those of all the Africans, bowed and lank. He told us that his brother was an ally of the king of Burnu, and traded with him, and that he was always at war with the people of Sennar. He likewise informed us, that it was forty days journey from Darfur to Siut, during which time water was only to be met with once a week, either in the wells or in crossing the *oasis*. The profits of these caravans ought to be enormous to repay the expense and trouble of fitting them out, and to indemnify them for their very great fatigues. When their female slaves were not taken in war, they cost them one indifferent gun, and the men slaves two. He told us, that it was very cold in his country at a certain time of the year, and having no word to express to us ice, he said, that they eat a great deal of a substance which was hard when taken in the hands, and which slipped through the fingers when it was held there for some time. We enquired of him of Tombuctoo, this celebrated city, the existence of which is so problematical in Europe. He was not surprised at our questions. From his account Tombuctoo was at the south-west of his country, and its inhabitants came to trade with him: they were six months on their journey from Tombuctoo to Darfur, and purchased the various articles which he brought from Cairo, for which they exchanged gold dust. He added, that this country was called in their language the Paradise; that the town of Tombuctoo was situated on the banks of a river, which flowed towards the west, and that the inhabitants were small of stature, and mild in disposition. We regretted much that we could not enjoy more time with this interesting traveller, but we could not indiscreetly urge him with questions, though he seemed to be perfectly well inclined to tell us what he knew, having nothing of the Mussulman gravity and taciturnity, and expressing himself with ease and energy. He told us, besides, that in his country the succession of the royal family was elective: that the military and civil chiefs, after the death of a king, chose, out of his sons, him whom they thought most worthy to succeed to the throne; and that hitherto there had been no example of a civil war being produced by this custom.

‘ All that I have been relating is, word for word, an authentic copy of the conversation which we had with this foreign prince. He added, that we had an infinite number of things to furnish Africa with, and that we should find them very willing to trade with us, without injuring the commerce which they kept up with each other; that we

should attach them to our interests by all their wants, and by the exportation of the superfluity of our productions; that the trade with India, in like measure, might be carried on through Mecca, taking this town or that of Cosseir as a common *entrepôt*, in the same way as Aleppo is for the Mussulman states, notwithstanding the length of march required on each side to arrive at the common point of contact.' Vol. ii. p. 28.

In the intervals of war, or in the moments of expectation, the army was amused with the recital of tales by the Arabs. These differ, according to our author, from the Thousand and One, and approach more nearly to what has been published, in English, as their continuation. The story is usually involved with the machinery of castles, poisons, daggers, rapes, &c. like modern novels, but the *dénouement* is clear and easy. The narration is slow; and this accounts for the small portion of the tale recited by the sultanness in a single night, which however, in the translation, is considerably shortened by the omission of the digressions, the poetry, &c. The same tale is repeated by different persons without greatly losing its interest, as each may excel in the description of different circumstances.

In Upper Egypt, thunder is rare, but a little rain not uncommon in consequence of the condensation of the vapour from the south meeting the colder winds from the Abyssinian mountains. The winter was passed in a state of anxiety and danger; for the barks did not arrive, and the Mamalukes, in front, menaced their little army with greatly superior numbers, while the peasants refused to pay the *miri*, till they could ascertain who would be the conquerors. We have not engaged in military details, but may remark, on the action of Samanhut, that, had Murad Bey possessed steadiness and firmness equal to his spirit, Dessaix's corps must have been annihilated. The volunteers from Mecca, descendants of Ali, wearing green turbans, seem to be soldiers equally active in attack, and firm in defence. The army, it is said, at this time also 'misbehaved;' but the cause and the effects are equally concealed. It is known, however, to have been a mutiny of the most alarming kind, and not suppressed without loss.

At Tentyra our author's enthusiasm is completely gratified.

These views will give an idea of the situation of the ancient city of Tentyra, which was built on the borders of the desert, on the lowest level of the Libyan chain, the foot of which is washed by the waters of the inundation of the Nile at the distance of a league from its bed.

Nothing is more simple and better put together than the few lines which compose the architecture. The Egyptians, borrowing nothing from the style of other nations, have here added no foreign ornament, no superfluity of materials: order and simplicity are the principles



which they have followed, and they have carried them to sublimity. At this point they have stopped, and have attached so much importance to preserving the unity of design, that though they have loaded the walls of these edifices with bas-reliefs, inscriptions, and historical and scientific representations, none of these rich additions intersects a single line of the general plan, all of which are religiously preserved unbroken: the sumptuous, and rich decorations which appear to the eye when close to the building, all vanish at a short distance, and leave full to view the grand elements of architectural composition, which are dictated by sound reason. It never rains in this climate; all that is wanted therefore is a covering of plat-bands to give shade, but beyond this, neither roof nor pediment are added; the plain-slope is the principle of solidity; they have therefore adopted this form for every main supporter, doubtless with the idea that stability is the first impression that architecture should give, and is an essential constituent of this art. With these people, the idea of the immortality of the Deity is presented by the eternity of his temple; these ornaments, which are always rational, always consistent, always significant, demonstrate a steadiness of principle, a taste founded upon truth, and a deep train of reasoning; and if we even had not a full conviction of the eminent height to which they had attained in the abstract sciences, their architecture alone, in the state in which we now find it, would give the observer of the present day a high opinion of the antiquity of this nation, of its cultivation, and the impressive gravity of its character.

‘I have already said that I despair of being able to express all that I felt on standing under the portico of Tentyra. I felt that I was in the sanctuary of the arts and sciences. How many periods presented themselves to my imagination at the sight of such an edifice! how many ages of creative ingenuity were requisite to bring a nation to such a degree of perfection and sublimity in the arts! and how many more of oblivion to cause these mighty productions to be forgotten, and to bring back the human race to the state of nature in which I now found them on this very spot! Never was there a place which concentrated in a narrower compass the well-marked memorial of a progressive lapse of ages. What unceasing power, what riches, what abundance, what superfluity of means must a government possess which could erect such an edifice, and find within itself artists capable of conceiving and executing the design, of decorating and enriching it with every thing that speaks to the eye and the understanding! Never did the labour of man shew me the human race in such a splendid point of view: in the ruins of Tentyra the Egyptians appeared to me giants.’ Vol. ii. p. 64.

To us, who only survey these ruins on paper, where, as has been just remarked, much of the influence of great objects is lost, the impression is different. The whole is massy and gigantic: it may be sublime; but it is by no means elegant or beautiful. The ornaments, grotesque and incongruous, will not bear a close examination; and the entire structure must be judged of by its general impression. Our author’s imagination is much more rapid than our own; and we cannot implicitly follow him.



should attach them to our interests by all their wants, and by the exportation of the superfluity of our productions; that the trade with India, in like measure, might be carried on through Mecca, taking this town or that of Cosseir as a common *entrepôt*, in the same way as Aleppo is for the Mussulman states, notwithstanding the length of march required on each side to arrive at the common point of contact.' Vol. ii. p. 28.

In the intervals of war, or in the moments of expectation, the army was amused with the recital of tales by the Arabs. These differ, according to our author, from the Thousand and One, and approach more nearly to what has been published, in English, as their continuation. The story is usually involved with the machinery of castles, poisons, daggers, rapes, &c. like modern novels, but the *dénoûment* is clear and easy. The narration is slow; and this accounts for the small portion of the tale recited by the sultanness in a single night, which however, in the translation, is considerably shortened by the omission of the digressions, the poetry, &c. The same tale is repeated by different persons without greatly losing its interest, as each may excel in the description of different circumstances.

In Upper Egypt, thunder is rare, but a little rain not uncommon in consequence of the condensation of the vapour from the south meeting the colder winds from the Abyssinian mountains. The winter was passed in a state of anxiety and danger; for the barks did not arrive, and the Mamalukes, in front, menaced their little army with greatly superior numbers, while the peasants refused to pay the *miri*, till they could ascertain who would be the conquerors. We have not engaged in military details, but may remark, on the action of Samanhut, that, had Murad Bey possessed steadiness and firmness equal to his spirit, Dessaix's corps must have been annihilated. The volunteers from Mecca, descendants of Ali, wearing green turbans, seem to be soldiers equally active in attack, and firm in defence. The army, it is said, at this time also 'misbehaved;' but the cause and the effects are equally concealed. It is known, however, to have been a mutiny of the most alarming kind, and not suppressed without loss.

At Tentyra our author's enthusiasm is completely gratified.

'These views will give an idea of the situation of the antient city of Tentyra, which was built on the borders of the desert, on the lowest level of the Libyan chain, the foot of which is washed by the waters of the inundation of the Nile at the distance of a league from its bed.

'Nothing is more simple and better put together than the few lines which compose the architecture. The Egyptians, borrowing nothing from the style of other nations, have here added no foreign ornament, no superfluity of materials: order and simplicity are the principles

which they have followed, and they have carried them to sublimity. At this point they have stopped, and have attached so much importance to preserving the unity of design, that though they have loaded the walls of these edifices with bas-reliefs, inscriptions, and historical and scientific representations, none of these rich additions intersects a single line of the general plan, all of which are religiously preserved unbroken: the sumptuous, and rich decorations which appear to the eye when close to the building, all vanish at a short distance, and leave full to view the grand elements of architectural composition, which are dictated by sound reason. It never rains in this climate; all that is wanted therefore is a covering of plat-bands to give shade, but beyond this, neither roof nor pediment are added; the plain-slope is the principle of solidity; they have therefore adopted this form for every main supporter, doubtless with the idea that stability is the first impression that architecture should give, and is an essential constituent of this art. With these people, the idea of the immortality of the Deity is presented by the eternity of his temple; these ornaments, which are always rational, always consistent, always significant, demonstrate a steadiness of principle, a taste founded upon truth, and a deep train of reasoning; and if we even had not a full conviction of the eminent height to which they had attained in the abstract sciences, their architecture alone, in the state in which we now find it, would give the observer of the present day a high opinion of the antiquity of this nation, of its cultivation, and the impressive gravity of its character.

‘ I have already said that I despair of being able to express all that I felt on standing under the portico of Tentyra. I felt that I was in the sanctuary of the arts and sciences. How many periods presented themselves to my imagination at the sight of such an edifice! how many ages of creative ingenuity were requisite to bring a nation to such a degree of perfection and sublimity in the arts! and how many more of oblivion to cause these mighty productions to be forgotten, and to bring back the human race to the state of nature in which I now found them on this very spot! Never was there a place which concentrated in a narrower compass the well-marked memorial of a progressive lapse of ages. What unceasing power, what riches, what abundance, what superfluity of means must a government possess which could erect such an edifice, and find within itself artists capable of conceiving and executing the design, of decorating and enriching it with every thing that speaks to the eye and the understanding! Never did the labour of man shew me the human race in such a splendid point of view: in the ruins of Tentyra the Egyptians appeared to me giants.’ Vol. ii. p. 64.

To us, who only survey these ruins on paper, where, as has been just remarked, much of the influence of great objects is lost, the impression is different. The whole is massy and gigantic: it may be sublime; but it is by no means elegant or beautiful. The ornaments, grotesque and incongruous, will not bear a close examination; and the entire structure must be judged of by its general impression. Our author's imagination is much more rapid than our own; and we cannot implicitly follow him.

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‘ These monuments, which imprinted on the mind the respect due to the sanctuary of the divinity, were the open volumes, in which science was unfolded, morality dictated, and the useful arts promulgated; every thing spoke, every object was animated with the same mind. The opening of the doors, the angles, the most private recess, still presented a lesson, a precept of admirable harmony, and the lightest ornament on the gravest feature of the architecture revealed, under living images, the abstract truths of astronomy. Painting added a further charm to sculpture and architecture, and produced at the same time an agreeable richness, which did not injure either the general simplicity or the gravity of the whole. To all appearance, painting, in Egypt, was then only an auxiliary ornament, and not a particular art: the sculpture was emblematical, and, if I may so call it, architectural. Architecture, therefore, was the great art, or that which was dictated by utility, and we may from this circumstance alone infer the priority, or at least the superior excellence of the Egyptian over the Indian art, since the former, borrowing nothing from the latter, has become the basis of all that is the subject of admiration in modern art, and of what we have considered as exclusively belonging to architecture, the three Greek orders, the Doric, Ionic, and Corinthian. We should, therefore, be cautious of entertaining the false idea, which is so prevalent, that the Egyptian architecture is the infancy of this art, since it is in fact the compleat type.’ Vol. ii. p. 69.

Every object, he adds, had its moral, and each figure its effect, in its own position only. The human figure is that of the present Egyptian, the character that of the African, ‘ of which the negro is the exaggerated picture, perhaps the prototype.’ In this, we see the disciple of Volney; and the negro is to be raised to the rank of the progenitor of the whole human race: but on this subject we have often enlarged; and we may now add, that, to the inquisitive philosopher, the Egyptian approaches more nearly the Hindû than the negro. The question, however, is here unimportant. One vast nation has overspread the African and a great part of the Asiatic continent; perhaps, from the former source, a part of the American. Yet, in no country do we find a negro race, except in the western regions, separated by inhospitable deserts from Egypt, whence they could scarcely in any period have migrated, and to which they probably could not return. The whole disquisition would be idle, were it not for the consequences which some mistaken moralists have attempted to draw from it.

The hieroglyphics are divided into three species. Were it not for the positive testimony of authors much nearer the source of this class of literary history, we might be induced to contend that this apparent character is merely an ornament. The assertion would, indeed, be too bold, especially as the solution of this interesting ænigma appears not to be distant. Yet we think many of these supposed characters must be merely orna-



mental, or the ideas conveyed very general and little varied, or artificially involved by minute and unsuspected differences. The figures are the same, the attitudes only changed. The language, then, must consist of very common and slightly complicated ideas; or the same figures in a different situation, according to M. Denon's hint, like the same words in the Chinese possession, with different intonations, must have a variety of meanings. We think the latter implies a greater advance in refinement, than we can allow to a nation that seems never to have merited the exalted commendations which it has received. The similarity of style and execution points out a slavish adherence to a plan or model inconsistent with true genius; and in their statues we know that the Egyptians, for ages, did not depart from the hard, upright, unpicturesque uniformity of first attempts. The representations of the peristyles of temples, in caryatides, may be the prototypes of our ornaments, as the ends of the rafters in a cottage roof may have suggested those of the Doric order. Yet no one will compare the one to the other. The zodiacs, &c. must be the subject of future consideration, when we can follow the author more closely in his details.

The same warmth of colouring decorates our author's description of Thebes, though a more sublime picture than his pompous language can convey occurs in a slight, almost unintentional, remark, when he observes that 'the diameter of Egypt is not sufficient to contain it: its monuments consequently rest upon the two chains of mountains which are contiguous, while its tombs occupy the valleys towards the west, far into the desert.' Of Thebes, however, the account is, in this part, slight. M. Denon speaks indefinitely of a colossal statue which was, seemingly, about seventy-five feet in height; for the Egyptians astonished mankind by the magnificence, the immensity of their works. This was, apparently, the statue of Osymandyas or Memnon, perhaps of the latter. To the last opinion our author seems to lean, and notices, on a neighbouring relic, the names of numerous visitors, of different nations, and in different languages. The statue of Memnon, and indeed every statue in this district, has been for ages mute, so that the repeated mode of discovery must be employed in vain.

Of the curiosities in this part of the tour we cannot greatly enlarge. Of the crocodiles, which our author saw, we have very trifling descriptions, without the slightest addition to what naturalists had already noticed. A more uncommon appearance, though by no means singular, is that of a tamarisk tree, which, loosened at its roots by progressive inundations of the Nile, has been subverted, and its branches have fixed in the ground, while its roots, raised in the air, have produced leaves.

The last town of any importance in Egypt is Esneh, the ancient Letopolis, in which are still some remains of antiquity.

The chief object in this line is the portico of a temple, which appears to our author the most perfect monument of ancient architecture. It is composed of eighteen noble and elegant columns with broad capitals, each of which differs from the other. The hieroglyphics are in relief, and well executed.

The island of Elephantina is described with peculiar luxuriance, and represented as highly beautiful. An ancient temple still remains, flat, massy, and, as we think, unpicturesque and inelegant. It is an ancient building, and, as M. Denon supposes, may have been dedicated to Cneph, the good genius, who nearly approaches the Supreme Being in his attributes. Our author discovered what may have been the building described by Strabo, in which the nilometer may have been placed; but no traces of the figures can now be discerned — The granite-quarries near Syene, whence the blocks which furnished the colossal statues have been hewn, are objects singularly vast and sublime. We have already noticed the cataracts, which are scarcely observable in our author's plate, and supported the authenticity of the representation by the observation of Norden, who tells us that he inquired for the cataracts when close to them. We shall select, however, M. Denon's description.

A league and a half below the quarries the rocks encrease, and form a bar in the river, where we found the Mameluke barks fixed between the rocks, up to the first well below the falls: the peasants of the neighbourhood had taken out the rigging and the provisions. We here quitted the little boat in which we had come up, and walking by the side of the stream for about a quarter of an hour, we came to the part which is generally called the cataract. This is nothing but a range of rocks, over which the river flows, forming in some places cascades a few inches in height, they are so insignificant, that they can hardly be represented in a drawing; but I just sketched the bar where this celebrated navigation ends, in order to do away the impression that has been given of the great fall of these famous cataracts. (See Plate XXXI. Fig. 2.) However, they would make a fine picture, if they were represented with the colour which characterizes them.

The mountains, the surface of which is broken by black and ragged projections, are reflected with their gloomy aspect on the clear mirror of the stream below, which is broken and divided by sharp points of granite that roughen its channel, and form long white lines of foam wherever any of these rocks cut its smooth surface. These rough shapeless masses, with their dark hues, form a striking contrast with the soft green of the groupes of palm-trees that cluster around the irregular cliffs, and with the celestial azure blue of the clearest sky over the face of the earth. A picture faithfully representing these striking objects, would have the rare advantage of exhibiting a true and yet perfectly novel scenery. After passing the cataracts, the rocks grow loftier, and on their summit rocks of granite are heaped up, appearing to cluster together, and to hang in equipoise, on purpose to produce the most picturesque effects. Through these rough and rug-



ged forms the eye all at once discovers the magnificent monuments of the island of Philœ, which form a brilliant contrast, and one of the most singular surprises that the traveller can meet with. The Nile here makes a bend, as if to come and visit this enchanting island, where the monuments are only separated by tufts of palm-trees, or rocks that appear to be left merely to contrast the forms of nature with the magnificence of art, and to collect, in one rich spot, every thing that is most beautiful and impressive. The enthusiasm which the traveller so constantly experiences at the sight of the monuments of Upper Egypt, may appear to the reader a perpetual and monotonous exaggeration; but it is, however, only the simple expression of feeling which the sublimity of their character excites; and it is from the distrust that I feel at being able to give any adequate idea of their magnificence by the pencil, that I have endeavoured to do justice to them by my expressions for the surprise and admiration with which they impress the beholder.' Vol. ii. p. 143.

We shall add the portrait of the Gublis, an Ethiopian race.

'I had already seen enough of Ethiopia, of the Gublis and their wives, whose extreme ugliness can only be equalled by the savage jealousy of their husbands. I saw some of the women, for as I gave the men less apprehension than our soldiers, they put a number of them under my protection in a cabin, before the door of which I had taken up my quarters for the night. They had been taken by surprise at the sudden arrival of our people at the close of evening, and had not time to fly and hide themselves in the rocks, or to swim across the river. They appeared to have the sullen stupidity of downright savages. A rugged soil, fatigue, and insufficient food, must, doubtless, impair in them all the charms of nature, and give them even in youth the marks of decrepitude. But the men seem to be of another species; for their features are delicate; their skin fine, their countenance lively and animated, and their eyes and teeth admirable. Lively and intelligent, they appear to throw so much clearness and conciseness on their language, that a short phrase is always a complete answer to questions that are put to them; their vivacity more resembles ours than that of the other oriental nations: they are quick in understanding and serving, and still more nimble in thieving, and have a greediness for money, which keeps pace with their great frugality, and can only be justified by their extreme poverty. To these reasons we may impute their leanness, which is not at all connected with ill health, for their colour, though black, is full of life and blood, but their muscles are only tendons, absolutely without fat, so that I did not see a single person among them who was even plump.' Vol. ii. p. 151.

If we except a few excursions, we are now arrived at the extent of the progress of the invaders. Here, however, we must rest, but shall return to this work in another number.

(To be continued.)



ART. XIII.—*The History of the Rebellion in the Year 1745.*By John Home, Esq. (Continued from ~~our last~~ Volume, 37 p. 391.)

THE cause of Charles, which was already declining in consequence of his retreat, was completely ruined by the victory at Culloden, and the force which the duke of Cumberland was still able to employ. Yet, when we reflect that Charles's was the popular cause, that infants learned to lisp his name with respect and reverence, we still wonder that he was not supported by a greater multitude of combatants, or that the cause was at last so totally forsaken. Somewhat may be attributed to the number of leaders lost in the battle; to the declining fervor of the Highlanders; to the apprehensions of many of the chiefs who had withheld assistance, even in the moment of prosperity, and would, consequently, be petrified by the adverse issue of the battle. The evil fortune of the house of Stuart was supposed to operate on some who were susceptible of such impressions, and perhaps might be felt even by those who professed themselves superior to such motives; for who can at all times say, *Veteres avias mihi de pulmone revello?* Moments of gloom and superstition will recur when reason is asleep.

The conduct of Charles was neither timid nor ignoble: he professed to retire, in order to return with fresh succours, which he asserted he should certainly receive. In the field, when he saw the highlanders repulsed, he advanced, it is said, with a design of rallying them, but was prevailed on by his tutor, sir Thomas Sheridan, to quit the battle, as the attempt was impracticable.

'The persons who attended Charles on the day of battle did not agree exactly in their accounts of what passed: most of them (some of whom are still alive) gave the same account that is given above. But the cornet who carried the standard of the second troop of horse guards, has left a paper, signed with his name, in which he says, that the entreaties of sir Thomas Sheridan and his other friends would have been in vain, if general Sullivan had not laid hold of the bridle of Charles's horse and turned him about. To witness this, says the cornet, I summon mine eyes.' P. 240.

The languor of the king's army, after the battle of Culloden, is not easily explained. A great part of it had not been engaged; yet, for some days, there was no serious attempt made to pursue the rebels. It would almost seem that they wished to give Charles an opportunity of escaping, and that all their anxiety was reserved for the period when they supposed him at a distance. It is certain, that, had he been taken, they would have held a wolf by the ears, without being able to retain him or loose their hold with safety. We shall select a

passage or two from this part of the narrative, to point out his hair-breadth escapes and difficulties.

‘As the country on both sides of Lochnevis had been the cradle of the rebellion, a great many detachments of the king’s troops were sent there after the battle of Culloden: the officers who commanded these troops, having received notice that Charles had landed at Lochnevis, formed a line of posts from Lochuren to Lochnevis, and from that to Lochshiel, to shut him in, being certain that he was on one or other of the promontories to the west of that line. Charles having made his way from Lochnevis to Borradale, sent one of Macdonald’s sons for Macdonald of Glenaladale, to desire that he would come to him as soon as he could. Glenaladale came immediately; and brought with him another Macdonald, who had been an officer in the French service, and had come over to Scotland after the rebellion broke out. The two Macdonalds consulting with Charles, resolved to attempt bringing him through the line of posts. Along this line, centinels were placed so near one another, in the day time, that nobody could pass without being seen: and when it began to grow dark, fires were lighted at every post, and the centinels crossed continually from one fire to another, so that there was a time when both their backs being turned, a person might pass unseen. Between two of these fires, there was a small brook which had worn a channel among the rocks. Up the channel of this brook Charles and the two Macdonalds crept; and watching their opportunity passed between the centinels.’ P. 251.

‘Glenaladale desired this man, who seemed so friendly, and so prudent, to give him his opinion (as he had traversed the country), what he thought was the safest place for Charles, mentioning at the same time his scheme of carrying him to the country of the Mackenzies, which Macdonald did not approve, saying, there were some troops got among the Mackenzies, and that he thought their country was in no respect safe; but that he had passed the former night in the great hill Corado, which lies between Kintail and Glenmoriston. That in the most remote part of that hill, called Corambian, there lived seven men upon whom the prince might absolutely depend, for they were brave and faithful; and most of them had been in his army. As Charles wished to get nearer Lochaber and Badenoch, where Locheil and Cluny were, he resolved to go to Corambian. Next morning he and his attendants set out, taking Macdonald for their guide, who conducted them to the wildest and most craggy part of the mountain. When they came near the haunt of the seven men, who had neither house nor hut, but lived in a cave of the rock, Glenaladale and Macdonald the guide, leaving Charles and the French officer, went to the cave, where they found six of the seven together, who had killed a sheep that day, and were at dinner. Glenaladale said, he was glad to see them so well provided. They told him he was very welcome to share with them. Glenaladale said he had a friend of his, another person with him, for whom he must beg the same favour: they asked who his friend was: he answered that it was his chief, young Clan Ronald. Nobody could be more welcome, they said,



than young Clan Ronald; that they would purchase food for him at the point of their swords. Glenaladale went back for Charles and the French officer. When Charles came near, they knew him, and fell upon their knees. Charles was then in great distress. He had a bonnet on his head, and a wretched yellow wig, a clouted handkerchief about his neck. He had a coat of coarse dark coloured cloth, a Stirling tartan waistcoat, much worn, a pretty good belted plaid, tartan hose, and Highland brogues, tied with thongs, so much worn that they would scarcely stick upon his feet. His shirt, and he had not another, was of the colour of saffron\*. With these people Charles staid some time, and they very soon provided him with clean linen; for a detachment of the king's army, commanded by lord George Sackville, being ordered to march from Fort Augustus to Strathglass, the attendants of Charles were informed of it; and knowing that the detachment must pass at no great distance from their habitation, they resolved to place themselves between two hills near the road to Strathglass. The detachment passed, and some officers' servants following at a considerable distance, the Highlanders fired at them, and seized some portmanteaus, in which they found every thing that Charles stood in need of.' p. 253.

' Charles staid in the cave with these men five weeks and three days: during this long abode, either thinking he would be safer with gentlemen, than with common fellows of a loose character, or desirous of better company, he told Glenaladale that he intended to put himself into the hands of some of the neighbouring gentlemen; and desired him to enquire about them, and learn who was the most proper person for him to apply to. Glenaladale talking with the Highlanders about the gentlemen in their neighbourhood, and enquiring into their character, they guessed from his questions what was the intention of Charles; and conjured him to dissuade the prince from it, saying, that no reward could be any temptation to them; for if they betrayed the prince, they must leave their country, as nobody would speak to them, except to curse them: whereas 30,000*l.* was a great reward to a poor gentleman, who could go to Edinburgh or London with his money, where he would find people enough to live with him, and eat his meat and drink his wine.' p. 256.

In this neighbourhood they waited some time for Clunes, and were greatly distressed for food till they killed a deer. Their distresses, however, were not, even now, at an end; and we shall add a picture of their extent.

' This plan being settled, they separated; but notice having been given to the king's troops that Charles, or some of the absconding

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\* \* Condition of Charles as described by Hugh Chisholm (one of the six who were in the cave of the rock when Charles came there). Chisholm was at Edinburgh a good many years after the rebellion; several people had the curiosity to see him, and hear his story. Some of them gave him money. He shook hands with his benefactors, and hoped they would excuse him for giving them his left hand, as when he parted with the prince he had got a shake of his hand; and was resolved never to give his right hand to any man till he saw the prince again.'



chiefs, were in the neighbourhood, one day Charles, having passed the night on the mountain, with one of Clunes's sons and Peter Grant, when they looked down on the vale, after sun-rise, they saw a number of men in arms demolishing their hut, and searching the adjacent woods. Charles and his attendants, to conceal their flight, availed themselves of the channel of a torrent which the winter rains had worn in the face of the hill, and ascending the mountain without being seen, travelled to another mountain called Malleutegart, which is prodigiously high, steep, and craggy. There they remained all day without a morsel of food. In the evening another son of Clunes came, and told them that his father would meet them at a certain place in the hills somewhat distant, with provisions. Clunes's son returned to let his father know that he might expect them. At night, Charles with his attendants set out, and travelled through most dreadful ways, passing amongst rocks and stumps of trees, which tore their clothes and limbs: at one time the guides proposed they should halt and stay all night; but Charles, though exhausted to the greatest degree, insisted on going to meet Clunes. At last, worn out with fatigue and want of food, he was not able to go on without help; and the two guides holding each of them one of his arms, supported him through the last part of this laborious journey. When they came to the place appointed, they found Clunes and his son, who had a cow killed, and part of it dressed for them. In this remote place Charles remained with Clunes till Lochgary and Dr. Cameron came there, who informed him that the passes were not so strictly guarded now, as formerly; and that he might safely cross Locharkaig, and get to the great fir wood belonging to Locheil, on the west side of the lake, where he might stay, and correspond with Locheil and Cluny, till it was settled when and where he should meet them.' p. 258.

Charles embarked at Borradaie on the 20th of September, and landed at Roscort, near Morlaix, in Britany, on the 29th.

So ended an expedition, begun with little prospect of success, for a time prosperous; though, on the whole, a desperate attempt. Charles set his fortune on a die, and stood the cast. In the course of it he displayed little energy of character, few traits of the hero; and, though his personal courage was undoubted, yet the instances of its exertion were not numerous. He was led by others, and occasionally, we suspect, betrayed. He scarcely showed himself worthy of a better fate; and languished, in a foreign country, in a despicable state of ebriety and libertinism. In his cooler moments, he displayed the manners of a gentleman under misfortune, and never debased himself at those times by querulousness or invective. He is said to have retained to the last a hope of regaining the throne by some of those eventful transactions to which kingdoms are subject; perhaps, according to *his* ideas, from an expectation of returning loyalty in a people not at that time remarkable for political steadiness. It has been asserted, that, about the year 1750, he was in London, and that this was known to George II, though not to his ministers. On a much more questionable authority,

it is reported that he was one of the spectators of the last coronation.

The Appendix consists of original documents; but they are few, and not always important. The first is dated October 1729; and the next, March 1743 \*, forming an interval within which much must have been done; and of which valuable information might, perhaps, be obtained; but that, at the distance of sixty years, we are *still* too near the scene; we still 'tread on fires covered by treacherous ashes.' The letters of James are evidently modernised, both in orthography and style, and, consequently, suspicious.

A long correspondence between the marquis of Tweeddale and lord Milton follows; but it affords little novelty of remark, and no particular elucidation of the events. That from the latter, dated 'Edinburgh, September 16, 1745,' is most instructive, but contains very little not before known. Lord Milton very plainly taxes government with ignorance or impolicy, in not giving 'legal strength to their friends in the Highlands.'

'It may be true, and I am humbly of that opinion, that at such a time as this, for the king to put arms in the hands of the Clans, of the third class above described, whose chiefs are themselves but late converts, and whose people may not yet be cured of their former prejudices against the present establishment, would not be safe or eligible. But I take it to be a clear case, that there can be no hazard, but a high utility, in arming the Whig Clans above named; and also, in case of further need, the Low-country militia in the southern and western counties. The former indeed was the most useful, and immediately necessary: and if it had been done, it is as clear as any moral demonstration, to every man in Scotland, that this at first pitiful and now ugly insurrection, would have been dissipated and crushed at once; for they were counted at Blair of Athol on the 1st of September, and were not then 2000 men; and what would have been more easy than for sir John Cope to have remained at Stirling till he had got a greater number of Highlanders than the rebel army, from the Campbells alone, who lay nearest to him? and then he had Highlanders against Highlanders, and his regular troops into the bargain; and might safely have marched where he pleased. Instead of which, what do we now see? The regular foot harassed and exposed by a tedious useless march to Inverness, and back again by Aberdeen, and conveyed from thence by sea. In the meantime, what I prophesied came to pass: the rebels got betwixt him and the Low-country. Alas! my lord, I have grief and not glory that my fears have been more than fulfilled; for more than I feared is come to pass. Yesterday, the two regiments of dragoons fled from the rebel army in the sight of Edinburgh, where many loyal gentlemen volunteers stood armed to defend the city, which was so dispirited and struck with consternation, that they resolved to open their gates to the rebels, despairing of speedy relief, and unable to make a long defence. Then it was, that I and others of his ma-

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\* Some answers to queries are indeed afterwards inserted, dated 1736.



jesty's civil officers, with several persons noted for their fidelity and zeal for his majesty, were obliged to fly from the capital; and thus to see Scotland reduced under the obedience of the Pretender, by the forces of two or three petty Highland gentlemen.' p. 305.

The president (Forbes)'s letters are excellent. Sir John Cope seems to have almost despaired very early, and complains, from the camp of Inverness, in August, that not a single Highlander had joined him. Charles complains equally, on his side, particularly of the tardiness of the Macdonalds and Macleods.

The replies of Patullo, who acted as quarter-master-general, to some queries are interesting; but the substance has been already given. Several of the subsequent documents we have antecedently noticed; but may particularly mention a gasconading account of the affair at Clifton, from Macpherson of Clunie. This, with all the other letters, has experienced the correcting hand of some modern scribe. The threatening letter from lord John Drummond to lord Fortrose, is curious; and the address from the chiefs, to Charles, after the battle of Falkirk, advising a retreat to the north, deserves to be preserved. What was the foundation of this advice, is not known. The number of men said to be absent, is supposed to have been greatly exaggerated. With respect to the intended night attack, at Nairn, there is a very laboured defence, from lord George Murray to Hamilton of Bangour, the burthen of which is, that the attack was intended only for a surprise, *by night*, and the men could not arrive, so as to attack, till three hours after day-light; at which time, the attempt must have failed. Charles, when questioned about the cause of retreating from Nairn, said, that lord George Murray convinced him of the propriety of it; but lord George takes the whole blame on himself, and defends his conduct ably at great length. In the latter period of his life, in consequence of his irregularities, the recollection of Charles was feeble and uncertain.

Miss Macdonald's account of the adventures of Charles, during the time he was under her protection, contains no fact of peculiar importance. Cluny's narrative of what happened to him and Lochiel after the battle of Culloden, their meeting with Charles, and their residence in a hut on the side of a hill, styled the Cage, is curious and romantic; but not of sufficient importance to detain us. 'The resolutions of the rebel chiefs after the battle of Culloden' to meet at Auchnecary, again to raise the standard of rebellion, is not authenticated by any signature; and we have little dependence on it as a serious determination, or an attempt so matured as to be practicable. We do not even find the names of those who were present when the paper was penned; and it cannot implicate any of the Clans



mentioned, in the treason of the attempt. It does *not*, we think, appear from the subsequent letters, 'that almost every chief or chieftain, who escaped from the battle of Culloden, had agreed to the resolutions,' as the historian contends. On the contrary, the plan seems to have been received with coldness and apprehension; and, on that account, to have been no longer persisted in. Some unimportant extracts from the State Paper Office of Scotland conclude the volume.

Having noticed this history so extensively, and having already offered our opinion of its merits, we need scarcely add any general character. In the minuter details, it certainly contributes to our knowledge respecting many trifling events; and, had it been styled a chronicle, or memoirs, it might have met our approbation. As a history, it is weak, trivial, and unimportant. Not a single character is delineated; not a feature portrayed; not a reflexion subjoined. In the great extensive scale of warfare, in the finer lineaments of intrigue, we are left without assistance; and, on a plan long meditated in concert with an artful insidious friend, supported by constant communications with the scene on which the great drama was to be acted, we find not an atom of information: all is without form, and void. The sources of the author's failure it is not our business to investigate; nor could we, perhaps, ascertain. The task might be too great to be grasped by a mind not inured to deep study or accurate research: the sources of information may have failed; or, in a series of years, the ardor of a first attempt may have cooled. Either or every one of these causes may have produced the deficiencies, which are unfortunately too glaring.

ART. XIV.—*Prophetiæ de septuaginta Hebdomadis apud Daniele Explicatio: quam, reverendo admodum in Christo Patri Beilbeio, Episcopo, cæteroque Clero Londinensi, Concione ad eos habitâ in Æde D. Alphægii 12mo Maii A. D. 1801, propositam, eorum Hortatu in Lucem edit Johannes Moore, LL. B. Collegii de Sion Præses. Adjiciuntur ad Calcem Notæ, in quibus fusius tractantur quædam et illustrantur. 8vo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Rivingtons. 1802.*

THE meaning of the seventy weeks, in the prophet Daniel, has tortured the sagacity of every interpreter; and the difference of opinions manifested among Christians, with respect to their commencement or termination, has been the triumph of the Jews. Still every additional attempt to investigate the true import of the prophecy is deserving of praise; and, when it is accompanied with the learning and candor which distinguish the

composition before us, it cannot fail of throwing new light upon the subject. The writer enters upon his important task with a very profound knowledge of that language with which every clergyman ought to be acquainted, and without which he must be continually at a loss, in expounding the prophetical parts of Scripture. The Hebrew is strangely neglected by ecclesiastics of every sect; nor is it improbable, that, even among the dignitaries of the established church, there may be found some incapable of reading the notes accompanying this discourse, and who must necessarily be incompetent to appreciate its merits, or to form an adequate judgement of the labours and profound researches of the preacher.

The discourse was delivered before the bishop and clergy of London, on the 12th of May 1802, and published at their request—a request which does them honour; for it is a true *concio ad clerum*—a *concio* which is entitled to the admiration of any assembly of clergy, however learned, and an admiration which must be increased by the superior degree of attention bestowed upon it in the closet.

The preacher first presents the prophecy, according to the English version, which he renders into Latin; and then proceeds to show in what points he differs from the commonly received interpretation of the words.

The date of the decree is generally assigned to the reign of Cyrus or Darius: our author, on the contrary, places it in the twentieth year of that of Artaxerxes, whom he supposes to have been moved by the grief of Nehemiah, and to have given him permission to proceed to Jerusalem. From the time of this supposed decree of Artaxerxes, four hundred and ninety years are to be computed, during which period many transactions were to be accomplished. The expiation of guilt, the introduction of eternal justice, and the anointing of the most holy, our author refers, with all prior interpreters, to our Saviour's passion, death, resurrection, and ascension. It is justly doubted, whether the transgressions and impieties of the Jews were, at this period, at their consummation; and the sealing up of the vision of prophecy is transferred to the moment when St. John finished the book of Revelations. Hence the term of four hundred and ninety years is extended, not only to the destruction of Jerusalem, but to some period beyond that important event.

In confirmation of this opinion, the writer very properly directs our attention to the character bestowed on the Messiah; namely, מלך, or *prince*, which cannot be applied to him in his state of humiliation, but only when he exerted himself as with princely authority, in taking vengeance of his adversaries, in sitting, as he himself expresses it, on the right hand of power, and in coming in the clouds of heaven.



The term of four hundred and ninety years is divided into two periods, one of sixty-two weeks of years, the other of seven. The sixty-two weeks of years bring us to the death of our Saviour; the remaining seven weeks descend to the destruction of Jerusalem. The term, translated in the common version *to build*, is rendered by our author *to destroy*; and he reads, that, after the sixty-two weeks, the street shall be destroyed, together with the wall and the tower of oppression,—the *turris Antonia*. Some other material alterations occur, as our readers will perceive, by a citation of the entire passage.

‘ Seventy weeks are determined for thy people and thy holy city, that iniquity may be completed, and sin expiated, and eternal justice introduced, the vision and prophecy sealed, and the most holy anointed. Know then, and understand, that, from the edict to rebuild Jerusalem to Messiah, prince, there will be seven and sixty-two weeks. Then, again, the street will be destroyed, and the wall and the tower of oppression. After sixty-two weeks, Messiah will be slain, but not on his own account. Then the people of a future prince will destroy the city and the sanctuary, and cut it off with an attack; and most complete ruin will terminate the war. But one week will confirm the covenant to many; and, in the middle of that week, the sacrifice and oblation will fail; and in the wing of the temple will be seen the abominations of the destroyer; and destruction and devastation shall be completely poured forth.’

The chronology of this period is enveloped in the greatest obscurity; and it cannot be expected that, from uncertain dates, precise epochs should be ascertained. From the twentieth of Artaxerxes to the death of Christ, elapsed about four hundred and thirty-four years: but sixty-two weeks of years were to elapse, from the date of the edict, before the death of our Saviour took place; and the angel does not determine the precise moment of that event. Hence, it might be in any part of the week following the sixty-two, that this portion of the prophecy was to be accomplished. Suppose it to be about the middle of the week: then, as the seven weeks are to commence anterior to his death—namely, at the end of the sixty-two weeks—there will remain nearly the time usually assigned for the destruction of Jerusalem, as also about twelve years more to complete the prophecy; for the temple and city would then be destroyed nearly in the middle of the sixty-ninth week; and the revelation of St. John, as is well known, was finished within twelve years from that period.

Such is the outline of the interpretation offered in the discourse before us—an interpretation which is supported by very elaborate notes in the appendix. To the version of נגיד, we give our cheerful assent, as well as to the very judicious explanation of the sealing of the vision and prophecy. The great difficulty lies in the word זבנתה. Our author derives it from



בְּתָה, twice used by Isaiah for *desolation*; and בָּנָה is the origin of בְּתָה. Hence, if בְּתָה be *desolation*, בָּנָה is *to desolate*. Several instances are given of similar derivations; and, though this idea never occurred to us before, and is totally repugnant to the generally-received opinion of the passage, we are very much inclined to agree with the author; and recommend it to the learned, to confirm, or refute, his opinion. The alteration of *troublous times* to a *tower*, or *fort of oppression*, seems to stand in need of much research. In the original, we have וּבְעוֹק הָעִתִּים, in which בְּעוֹק is commonly supposed to be two words—a noun and a preposition. Our author, however, conceives it to be only one word—בְּעוֹק; and that as הָרֹעַ is derived from רָע, so בְּעוֹק is derived from בָּעַק, *to swell*, and to mean a *tower*, as an intumescence of the city. Since עָת may originate from עָנָה, *to oppress*, עִתִּים easily becomes *oppressions*. The history of the *turris Antonia* seems to justify this rendering.

If we give credit to the author's interpretation, there is certainly great consistency in all its parts: the difficulties in the way of arriving at complete satisfaction are, nevertheless, numerous, and in general too well known, to be enlarged upon in this article: yet we cannot avoid observing, that the interpretation of בְּנִי adds considerable support to Mr. Cappe's opinion, vol. 37, p. 424, while that of the sealing of the vision and prophecy corresponds with the period generally assigned to the cessation of miraculous powers, or the peculiar interference of Providence in the affairs of the church. We could have wished that the discourse and notes had been in the English language, for the sake of many who study Hebrew, without knowing Latin; in which class, we may place nearly the whole body of Jews; for, unless some pains be taken to convey the work into foreign countries, we are fearful that considerable time will still elapse, before this judicious interpretation, notwithstanding the author's efforts to accommodate it to foreign use, by employing the Latin dialect, will be known to the learned on the continent. Wherever it travels, it cannot fail, however, of exciting general approbation: the writer will be regarded as a distinguished ornament of the English church; and they who inquire after him will not be less surprised than ourselves, when we learned that this admirable performance, this proof of profound erudition, of deep Scriptural research, and of an accurate knowledge of the Hebrew language, is the production of a minor canon of St. Paul's. What ought we not to expect from the superior dignitaries of the hierarchy, when we perceive a preacher of such humble station so indefatigable a labourer in the vineyard? or rather, it may be asked, whence proceeds it, that so distinguished an ornament of the church should have remained so long in unmerited obscurity?

# MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

## GENERAL POLITICS.

ART. 15. — *Hints on the Policy of making a national Provision for the Roman Catholic Clergy of Ireland; as a necessary Mean to the Amelioration of the State of the Peasantry. Addressed to John Bagwell, Esq. &c. 8vo. 1s. Ginger. 1803.*

THE state of the peasantry of Ireland, deplorable in itself, is rendered still more so by the drains to which it is subject for the support of its own clergy. To remedy this evil, it is here proposed that the catholic priests should have an allowance from government, at the rate of a hundred a-year for each; yet so apportioned, that, out of the general sum collected, the bishops should have an income of three hundred pounds. It is scarcely probable that this plan should be adopted in the way proposed, by a rate on tithes and land; yet, as there is a *regium donum* in England for the dissenting clergy, a similar donation in Ireland would have a beneficial effect on the dissenting clergy in that part of the united kingdom. The idea of danger to be apprehended from popery is here justly reprobated; and the difficulties attending the emancipation of the Catholics is treated with proper decorum. Time will probably meliorate their condition; and, without the establishment proposed, they will gradually derive benefits from the union, which will moderate the intolerance of Irish protestants, and teach them to respect the prejudices of their brethren.

ART. 16. — *A summary Account of Leibnitz's Memoir, addressed to Lewis the Fourteenth, recommending to that Monarch the Conquest of Egypt, as conducive to the establishing a supreme Authority over the Governments of Europe. 8vo. 2s. Hatchard. 1803.*

The penetrating mind of Leibnitz saw, in the possession of Egypt, an ample source of greatness, and the destruction of the Mahometan power. The grandeur of Lewis the Fourteenth seemed to him best calculated for so important an object; and a memoir addressed to that monarch pointed out all the advantages attending an expedition into Egypt, and the facility with which it might be conquered. The late expedition of Bonaparte is a proof that the views of the learned writer were just, and that the French acted upon them in their endeavours to gain possession of that valuable country. For whom it is eventually destined, time will soon discover. That it cannot remain long in the possession of the Turks, is certain; and that either the French or English must seize it, is highly probable. Our post at Malta gives us great facilities; and, knowing the designs of our enemies, and the ease with



which they can be frustrated, we may ourselves, perhaps, be destined to rescue the garden of Africa from rapine and plunder. We wish the whole memoir had been given; but this summary account will be read with pleasure by all who take an interest in the affairs of Egypt.

ART. 17.—*The Question of the Bahama Jurisdiction over the Turks' Islands, discussed; in a Letter to the honourable Speaker, and Gentlemen of His Majesty's colonial Assembly, of the Bermuda or Somers' Islands. By Isocrates. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Harding. 1803.*

The Turks' islands are small islets, or rocks, whose value depends on the salt raked from them. The jurisdiction over these islets has been claimed by the Bahama government; and this claim is opposed by that of the Bermudas. To determine the right, the author inquires into all the records relative to a settlement on these islands, and decides in favour of the government of the Bermuda. The question is treated with great precision, and presents much curious information to those who are concerned in the discussion of it.

ART. 18.—*A Letter to W. Wilberforce, Esq. M. P. and those who acted with him most zealously for the Abolition of the Slave Trade. Written in 1803. 8vo. 6d. Phillips.*

Very pointed questions to Mr. Wilberforce, on the present state of that inquiry in which the whole nation at one time took so decided an interest, and which in a very unaccountable manner has been suffered to die away by him who was considered as the advocate for real religion, and the patron of distressed humanity. 'Have you,' it is asked with true animation, 'in the prosecution of the war, so defiled your hands, as to be no longer fit for the glorious work to which you were once called?'

ART. 19.—*Letter from a Gentleman in Barbadoes to his Friend in London, on the Subject of Manumission from Slavery, granted in the City of London, and in the West India Colonies. 8vo. 1s. Mawman. 1803.*

The permission of the slave-trade in the West-Indian colonies has been attended with horrid cruelties and abominable practices. To ameliorate the state of the unhappy persons confined in them against the whole spirit of our constitution, manumission has been allowed in the islands: but, to prevent the evidently bad effects of indiscriminate manumission, it is ordained by the colonial legislatures that a certain sum shall, on the manumission of a slave, be vested in the parish-officers, to prevent him from becoming, after obtaining of his freedom, a burden on the parish. In England, a man is free the moment he sets foot on the island: but it is evident that the law of England cannot alter the master's right in another country; and, if the slave return to Barbadoes, his master, notwithstanding the voyage to England, will demand his services. This may be allowed: but another case is the chief object of this letter; and the writer contends that an act of manumission performed in England cannot be valid in Barbadoes; because, according to the colonial law, a certain sum is to be deposited; and, in England, no such deposit takes place. The form of man-

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mission is given in this work; and it is concluded frequently in the lord-mayor's court in London, by which the master declares, that, for certain considerations, he has relinquished his right over the person and property of the slave. The subject deserves consideration; for, according to this writer's opinion, a numerous body of people, who have enjoyed their liberty for many years, have no right at all to it, and may be treated with the accustomed insolence and barbarity which are allowed to a freeman against the slave. The fact, however, seems to us clearly otherwise. The compulsion of a man into a state of slavery, notwithstanding the law of Barbadoes, is a wicked and base act, perpetrated on the coast of Africa by barbarians, and fraudulently taken advantage of by wretches who call themselves civilised, and Christian.

The law of Barbadoes, finding men in slavery, determines, for financial reasons, that the master shall pay a certain sum on the manumission of his slave. This certainly gives a claim to the master's property. If the master and the slave quit the island of Barbadoes, they are neither of them under its laws; and, when they are in England, the master may make the contract of manumission, as he does any other contract; and it is binding against him in all other parts of the world. It is supposed that he has a right to the services of the slave in the colonies: for a valuable consideration, he relinquishes that right, and the slave becomes a free man. If he return to Barbadoes, he necessarily returns there a free man. The colonial legislature may, if it please, make laws to prevent the entrance of such a description of persons into the island: but it has not the right to seize a free man, and subject him to the conditions of slavery: it cannot violate the universal law of contracts, on account of some petty financial regulations of its own.

#### LOYALTY AND PATRIOTISM.

ART. 20.—*Publicola's Addresses. — To the People of England; to the Soldiers; and to the Sailors. To which is added, his Postscript to the People of England.* 12mo. 3d. Ginger. 1803.

This pamphlet, as the title announces, consists of three separate addresses: they are written in a nervous and impressive style; and, if the sentiments in the two last be little more than repetitions from the first, they are repetitions of important facts, which cannot at present be too frequently inculcated upon the classes to whom they are addressed. They appear to have been penned on the first menace of a French invasion; and the writer cannot but rejoice in contemplating how fully much of the advice offered in the following passage has been approved and adopted.

‘ Arise then, my fellow-citizens and countrymen, break that silence which you have lately observed: — let your spirit burst forth, and let your voice speak out the purpose of your souls—Tell the plunderers of Europe that you are not the slumbering infatuated people they have had to deal with on the continent—Tell them that every house, cottage, or stall, is in this country a castle—that every man is the governor of his own castle, and that he will maintain it against attack as tenaciously as the first consul would maintain his own usurped throne—Tell them, that England would never compromise with infamy to

ensure even power or greatness—but, that to exchange a free constitution, our Magna Charta, and our Bill of Rights for French tyranny, military government, and arbitrary restriction—to barter freedom of debate and the liberty of the press for imposed silence upon every political subject, and suppression of our journals and every species of information—and equality of laws for the will and caprice of one, and one whose will is caprice itself—would be the act of madmen and ideots, such as neither Buonaparté nor the house of Bourbon have ever found the people of England to be. Speak out, I repeat, or these great talkers will suppose your silence to be the effect of timidity and apprehension—Call meetings in every parish—Assemble together in your towns, and give the throne assurances in support—Let every man feel confidence in himself, whether he wield a musket or a pitch-fork—The numbers of our enemy will diminish in the scale, as the individual becomes his own defender; and if, as we have proved, we have ever been victorious over the French upon equal terms, how will they escape an overwhelming destruction and annihilation, when we boast such a superiority of force!—God forbid that I should entertain an apprehension upon the ultimate result of an invasion of this country!—it can only become formidable by being despised and lightly treated—Something more, however, is claimed at your hands than simply averting the threatened calamity—the lion must rouse himself; the country must crush at a blow the presumptuous efforts of the enemy—We must not year after year be subject to his insolent menaces—our resources will be drained, our taxes encreased, and our comforts abridged; whilst he, without exertion, may war against our finances, and sap the foundation of a prosperity, against which openly, I trust, he can never succeed. Our vengeance therefore must be signal and terrible: like the bolt from heaven, it must strike the devoted army of invaders, and no less secure us from the present, than alarm and panic-strike the soldiers of France from future attempts at so rash and ruinous an enterprize.’ P. 6.

ART. 21.—*The British Patriot's Catechism and Prayer subjoined. Adapted to every Station in Life, and recommended to be attentively perused every Sunday, by the enrolled Defenders of Great Britain, before and after the Hours of Drilling.* 12mo. 2d. Ginger. 1803.

ART. 22.—*The British Patriot's moral and political Creed; with illustrative Notes of the Text; being a Companion to the British Patriot's Catechism, adapted to all Conditions of Life, and recommended to be attentively perused by the enrolled Defenders of Great-Britain on every Sunday, before and after the Hours of Drilling.* 12mo. 2d. Ginger. 1803.

These pamphlets, it seems, are both reprinted from a weekly journal; and, though the language employed be not at all times perfectly accurate, we at least approve of their intention. The questions and answers in the catechism will not, in point of number, much trouble the memory, consisting of not more than five of each kind,



though it must be owned that some of the replies are a little too long-winded. The last question is the following :

‘ Has there been, or is there at present any other state or government in the world where there exists such liberties, founded upon the principles of nature and reason, as those established in the British constitution, by the above mentioned charter and Bill of Rights?’ p. 9.

To this the answer appended commences as follows :—‘ None on the face of the globe *that will bear the smallest comparison.*’ Our catechist does not, however, choose to enter into this universal comparison, confining his catechumen entirely, in the further prosecution of his reply, to a parallel between the constitutions of England and France. This is well ; for, had he traveled to the United States of America, we think he would have been puzzled to have defended his position. The mere advantage of rights and liberties, enjoyed in this federal republic, is undeniably equal to that of those possessed by ourselves. But, allowing an equality in this respect, we have still an unrivaled superiority in others ; and it is to be found in that beautiful gradation of civil rank, which constitutes a part of the English constitution—in a greater polish of manners, and pre-eminence of taste and erudition. Whence our catechist derived the idea—that, shortly after the commencement of the Norman conquest, this country was afflicted with a famine, so severe as to compel the people to turn cannibals, and live upon each other’s flesh—we know not ; nor is it necessary to inquire.

The Patriot’s Prayer for the defence of the *imperial empire* commences as follows :

‘ May God protect his most gracious Majesty, and maintain the *imperial empire* of Great Britain and Ireland long under his government ; and defend us from being the slaves of the three-headed monster of republican France, united in the person of the most sacrilegious, bloody-minded, treacherous and rapacious usurper that ever ruled mankind, or that ever scourged the inhabitants of the earth.’ p. 14.

The paper called a *creed* principally consists of abjurations, comminations, oaths, and vows, which have as little to do with a *creed* as they have with a Latin Syntax. As it is but short, we shall give it for the benefit of such *volunteers* (it is signed a *volunteer*) as choose to commit it to memory.

‘ I believe in God, the supreme ruler of the universe. I *abjure* all atheistical, deistical, paganistical, polytheistical, schismatical, and fanatical principles, as well as the Mahomedan faith, and all the other damnable doctrines of the sanguinary military revolutionary ruler of the French republic. I *swear* true allegiance and fidelity to the king. I *profess* the cardinal virtues, but more especially that paramount to all others, an ardent love for the country in which I first breathed the vital air.

‘ I *love, cherish, and admire*, the morals and virtues of my sovereign, the blessings of a British constitution, the liberties of my nation, the mildness of our government and laws, founded on nature and reason, and which have been reared to an enviable pinnacle of glory by our ancestors, and the progressive wisdom of ages.



‘ I *detest* from my soul all apostacy, all sacrilege, all impiety, all disloyalty, all cruelty, all perfidy, and all plunderers, all ravishers, all assassins, all violaters of faith, all murderers of prisoners in cold blood, all poisoners of sick fellow-subjects, all treacherous and pusillanimous deserters of companions in arms, at home or abroad, and all tyrannical usurpers wherever they may be found upon the face of the earth.

‘ I solemnly *vow*, with firm adherence, loyalty, and truth, to our king, our constitution, our religion, our laws, our liberties, and independence, to support, with my life, ability, and fortune, the blessings enjoyed as a British subject; and to transmit them, as handed to us by our ancestors, pure and unsullied to posterity. In defending these invaluable rights against invasion, rebellions, insurrections, conspiracies, treasons, incendiaries, and diabolical machinations devised, planned, or to be executed by Satan, the first apostate from his God, or his arch-fiend, who has so long reigned the curse and scourge of mankind.

‘ I firmly believe, trust, and hope, without any spirit of predestination, that the inscrutable ways of divine providence will shield, in the hour of peril, all those patriots animated with laudable deeds of enterprize, in struggling against nefarious invaders, avowing the eternal bondage, if not the total extermination, of the inhabitants of this land.

‘ And, finally, I believe, that the hour is approaching when Britons will be made the instruments in this nether world of the destinies of Providence, by hurling omnipotent wrath on the sins of a second Sodom and Gomorrah; and avenging the unparalleled crimes of a chief more cruel than Herod or Pontius Pilate, and whose associates are more blood-thirsty and rapacious than the ancient Philistines.’  
p. 5.

We must leave our author himself to explain what he means by calling Bonaparte the *arch-fiend* of Satan, who has hitherto been regarded as, *without a rival, the arch-fiend himself*.

ART. 23. — *Home Truths: being a Collection of undeniable Facts, selected from the most unquestionable Authorities; or, Hints to the respectable Auditors (if any such are still to be found) of the worthy Disciple of Horne Tooke: or, in other Words, to the base or ignorant Wretches who still dare to talk of Reform, by which nothing more or less is meant than a bloody Revolution.* 12mo. 2d. Ginger. 1803.

These home truths and *undeniable* facts are, for the most part, selected from the *unquestionable authorities* of the Intercepted Letters. The writer cannot surely be acquainted with the doubt which still hangs over these mysterious epistles, which have had their day, and had their purpose, and, we were in hopes, had been quietly inhumed, or he would not have ransacked their graves, and once more brought them upon the theatre of life, as exhibiting *undeniable facts* upon *unquestionable authority*. Since, from the enormous ambition of the first consul of France,

‘ The world was all before him, where to choose,’

why has not the writer selected, in *every* instance, from transactions clear as the day-light, and possessing the concurrent testimony of all parties? In *some* instances he has done so: many examples of French perfidy and cruelty are happily introduced from Denon, not generally noticed in other tracts; and the ingratitude, as well as departure from all diplomatic faith, lately manifested in the detention of the person of lord Elgin, is thus well contrasted with his lordship's conduct on another occasion.

'It is a well known fact, that lord Elgin, a considerable time previous to the signing the treaty of Amiens, requested of the Porte, as a personal favour to himself, the liberation of many hundred Frenchmen, then prisoners in Turkey. This request was granted, as, probably, many soldiers in France can now testify. What return did the grand consul make to so generous, so unprecedented an act of humanity? Blush! Frenchmen! at the answer that you have to make. But I had forgot that your tyrant is a foreigner, consequently your blushes (if you have any sentiment of honour or virtue still remaining) must arise from a very different, though a no less mortifying and disgraceful reflection.' P. 10.

To these *home truths* in simple prose, are subjoined other *home truths* in merry verse, under the title of 'A King or a Consul?' and, as the following possess some degree of humour, we shall select them, as a specimen of the rhymester's talents:—

'In England when wounds are the sailor's sad lot,  
Their wounds and their sufferings are never forgot;  
To a palace far nobler our vet'rans we bring,  
Than is kept for himself by our merciful king.  
Derry down, &c.

'Let any compare, if my saying he blames,  
The splendours of Greenwich with those of St. James:  
Once *Buoni* trepann'd his poor troops to the East,  
O'er deserts too sultry for man or for beast.  
Derry down, &c.

'When the battle was over, and hundreds were found,  
By the fortune of war gash'd with many a wound;  
Diseas'd and afflicted—now what do you think  
This tender commander oblig'd them to drink?  
Derry down, &c.

'You fancy 'twas grog, or good flip, or good ale;  
No, 'twas poison, alas! was the soldier's regale:  
See Jaffa—see Haslar—the diff'rence to prove,  
There poison, here kindness, there murder, here love.  
Derry down, &c.' P. 21.

ART. 24.—*Bonaparte; an heroic Ballad: with a Sermon in its Belly, which that renowned Warrior and most reverend Theologian preached at his Visitation of the good People of Egypt: with explanatory Notes. By the Editor of Salmagundi. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hatchard. 1803.*

The sermon here referred to, preached in Egypt by the reverend



Napoleon Bonaparte, and now, for the benefit of clergy and laity, for the first time printed in the *belly* of this heroic *ballad*, is thus more fully described in the poem itself.

‘ To the African coast  
He led a huge host  
Of doughty proficients in bloodshed and rapine,  
Who the windpipes by scores  
Of Italian signores  
Had sever’d, and spoil’d all their quavering and scraping.  
Alexandria they reach’d,  
Where a *sermon* he preach’d,  
While Egyptians to hear him, like boys to a show, ran ;  
“ Sure his old friend in black  
Has sent Mahomet back,”  
Cried each iman and cheik, “ to republish the Koran.”

‘ CHORUS.

‘ Friend Rowland, I fear,  
You’d look mighty queer,  
Should this militant holder-forth once come athwart ye ;  
Though you beat bulls of Basan  
In mouth diapason,  
You’re not fit to cry Amen to *Saint Bonaparte*.

‘ He told the Egyptians  
All kinds and descriptions  
Of men in the eyes of their Maker were equal ;  
“ And truly,” quoth he,  
“ That they’re all so to me,  
I’ll warrant you, sirs, you shall find in the sequel :  
All’s fish to my net,  
I’ve the popedom o’erset,  
And those blockheads of Malta, destroy’d in a trice ’em ;  
And each Mameluck sot  
Shall now go to pot ;  
Then devoutly let’s join to anathematize ’em.

‘ CHORUS.

“ For from morning to night  
I can cant, curse, or fight ;  
And should Merlin arise, who profess’d the black art, he  
And his cats would have star’d,  
And his imps have been scar’d,  
At the fulminant doctrines of *Saint Bonaparte*.” P. 12.

We have often admired Mr. Hurdisford’s art, and been pleased with his humourous quaintness ; but we do not think the present attempt equal to any of his former productions ; and should rather have expected to have found it dated from Sadler’s Wells or the Circus, than avowed by the *editor of Salmagundi*. The notes appended, however, contain many a good jest, and many a just satire. We shall add those which refer to the stanzas selected.



*Alexandria they reach'd,*  
*Where a sermon he preach'd.]* Some doubt being entertained, whether the conduct of our church-militant hero may have been quite correct in the present instance, and whether he did not preach this sermon without having been canonically ordained; we have, on inquiry, been certified from indisputable private authority, that the rite of ordination had been long since duly administered to the general, by the laying on the immaculate hands of the right reverend Charles Maurice Talleyrand, ci-devant bishop of Autun, his present domestic confessor and chaplain, as well as minister for foreign affairs.—N. B. Some have imagined this sermon of Bonaparte's to have been a *charity sermon*, which, from the truly philanthropic spirit that it breathes, is certainly a happy conjecture.

‘ *In mouth diapason.]*

‘ Many a sweet rise, many as sweet a fall,  
 A full-mouth diapason swallows all.” CRASHAW.

‘ The powers of mouth diapason are happily described by Pope.

“ So swells each windpipe, ass intones to ass  
 Harmonic twang.—

Such as from lab’ring lungs th’ enthusiast blows,  
 High sound, attemper’d to the vocal nose,  
 Or such as bellow from the deep divine :

There, Webster, peal’d thy voice; and, Whitfield, thine !”

*Dunciad*, book ii.

‘ For an authentic exemplification of sectarian stentorism, see bishop Warburton’s *Treatise on Grace*, pages 99, &c.

‘ *You’re not fit to cry Amen to Saint Bonaparte.]—*

‘ Ye lesser saints, hide your diminish’d rays !

‘ When some of the cadets of the Military School at Paris attended the church of Notre Dame, in order to be confirmed, the archbishop, as was customary, demanded of Bonaparte, who was one of them, his Christian name; and, not hearing his answer distinctly, bade him repeat it again. B. in a tone of impatience repeated, “Néapolon.”—I have never heard of that saint, said the grand vicar to the prelate. “Parbleu !” replied Bonaparte : “je le crois bien. C’est un saint Corse.”—See *Histoire de Bonap.* t. i. p. 28.

‘ *He told the Egyptians*

*All sorts and descriptions*

*Of men in the eyes of their Maker were equal.]* “Inhabitants of Egypt ! all men are equal in the eyes of God.” *Bonap. to the People of Egypt.*

“ And truly,” quoth he,

“ That they’re all so to me,

I’ll warrant you, sirs, you shall find in the sequel:

*All’s fish to my net,” &c.]* Our Corsican saint is a most religious observer of those sacred texts, which tell us, “that we are not to have

respect to persons ;" and that, "if we have respect to persons we commit sin." (James, ii. 1 and 9, &c.) Even his most inveterate adversaries must admit his saintship to have been immaculate and sinless in this article : for all who stood in his way, of whatever sect, country, or description, were sure to be most *impartially* dealt with ; and had the consolation to know, that, whether catholics, protestants, or musselmen, Germans, Italians, Swiss, or Syrians, they would be indiscriminately stripped, pillaged, shot, and bayonnetted "for the glory of the God of infinite mercy (*pour rendre gloire à Dieu, dont la miséricorde est infinie*)."

There exists a natural sympathy and common principle, by which all saints militant are actuated towards the objects of their warfare, from our Corsican *Sanctissimus Sanctorum*, to Saint Roger Tuttel, who, if not, like St. Néapolon, a *Saint-Corse*, is (which is much the same) a coarse saint, preacher, and ratcatcher of Tabernacle-eminence ; on a board, over whose door, Mr. James Lackington tells us, he saw inscribed this public avowal of the impartiality, with which, under the divine sanction, *he* also prosecuted his heroic, slaughterous, and exterminatory vocation :

"Roger Tuttel, *by God's grace and mercy*, kills rats, moles, and *all sorts* of vermin and venomous creatures." *Lackington's Life*, p. 185.

"*I've the popedom o'erset,*

*And those blockheads of Malta, destroy'd in a trice 'em.*" ] "Did we not destroy the pope, who saw that it was necessary to make war against musselmen ?"

"Did we not destroy the knights of Malta, because those foolish men thought that God wished war to be carried on against the musselmen ?" *Bonaparte's Proclamation to the People of Egypt*.

"*And each Mameluck sot*

*Shall now go to pot.*" ] "God has directed, that their (the Mamelucks') empire should finish." *Ibid.*

"*Then devoutly let's join to anathematize 'em.*" ] "Every one shall return thanks to God for the destruction of the Mamelucks. Glory to the sultan ! glory to the French army *his friend* ! Curses to the Mamelucks ! and happiness to the people of Egypt !" *Bonap. Proclamation to the People of Egypt.* P. 27.

ART. 25.—*English, Scots, and Irishmen. A patriotic Address to the Inhabitants of the United Kingdom. By John Mayne. Richardson. 1803.*

If Mr. Mayne have not yet reached the summit of Parnassus, there are many far below him, as the following stanzas of this loyal song will witness :—

Who wou'd be a Frenchman's slave ?

Who wou'd truckle to the knave ?

Who wou'd shun a glorious grave

For worse than death, for—infamy ?

To see your liberties expire—

Your temples smoke, your fleets on fire !

That's a Frenchman's sole desire—

That's your fate, or—liberty !

' Robb'd of all that sweetens life,  
 Tranquil home, and happy wife!  
 Reeking from the villain's knife,  
 Yonder harmless peasant see—  
 Prostrate near him on the heath,  
 A ruin'd daughter gasps for breath!  
 Frenchmen riot in their death—  
 That's to them a luxury!'

ART. 26.—*The Shield of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. A Poem. By P. W. Dwyer. 4to. 2s. 6d. Ginger. 1803.*

Neptune becomes enamoured of Britannia—

' Ye gods, says he, observe that noble fair,  
 With her, in beauty, Venus can't compare.  
 To calm the billows of the raging deep,  
 Through ether down my car must fleetly sweep,  
 The tempests rude, on her shall cease to blow,  
 To their dark dens, the howling tribe must go.' P. 6.

' To the roaring seas, their sovereign presents  
 The trident dreadful to their foaming breasts,  
 With awe profound the roaring waves sink low,  
 Their passions hush and on they smoothly flow.

' Britannia now with pure delight he views,  
 Responsive rays from her bright orbs diffuse  
 Around his heart, the pleasing pangs of love,  
 That long detain'd him from the realms above.' P. 6.

' The charming bride, in bloom, excels the rose,  
 Two globes entrancing her sweet bosom shows,  
 His head between them Neptune softly press'd,  
 In bliss celestial both then sunk to rest.

' From this union, as in heaven ordain'd,  
 The hero sprang, whom gods to war have train'd,  
 On him in battle, Mars and Neptune smile,  
 And cheer their darling Nelson of the Nile.' P. 8.

We freely confess, that, till this moment, we had formed a different idea of his lordship's genealogy: but who should know, if not the inspired Muses?

ART. 27.—*The Warning Drum, a Call to the People of England to resist Invaders. By T. Newenham, Esq. 8vo. 3d. C. and R. Baldwin. 1803.*

This patriotic effusion is composed of a string of questions from the beginning to the end; to which the writer very kindly favours the reader, at the same time, with an answer. The questions, however, are for the most part highly pertinent, and, in almost every instance, strike home to every man's business and bosom. In the author's an-



swer to the inquiry—'Is it not a fact that they (*the French*) entered Hanover for no other declared purpose than merely to occupy it?' we cannot readily coincide; and hence it had been better to have omitted it, or worded it differently. Hanover is in all respects, and has been from the moment of its possession by the French, a conquered country: it was indeed forcibly seized as such at the first entrance of the enemy; and there is not an instance in history of a conqueror taking possession of a country, by right of conquest, for the mere purpose of quietly occupying it. The Hanoverians are, in reality, much to be pitied; they are ruined, in consequence of a quarrel in which they are in no way concerned; and, from the unprotected state of their country at the moment of its attack by the French, had no other alternative than that of submission, or a certainty of perishing by the sword. The writer sums up the whole of his argument with this comfortable prediction.

'Fortune seldom follows her votaries to the grave. The career of the usurper will soon be stopped. The admiring world will soon see that it was reserved for Britons alone to tear the laurels from his brow, humble his pride, extinguish his glory, and prostrate his power for ever.

'Let us then, my countrymen, prepare in time to do our duty as becomes us. Let us prepare for that great work which it seems the Almighty has destined us to perform. Let every man employ in the defence of his country whatever talents he may happen to possess. Let him employ them instantly and incessantly:

"Let's take the instant by the forward top;  
—— For on our quick'st decrees  
Th' inaudible and noiseless foot of time  
Steals, ere we can effect them."

'Let every man suspend both his business and his pleasures. Let every man turn all his thoughts on the destruction of French robbers, ravishers, murderers, and tyrants. Let every man act as if he thought the glory of Old England, the happiness, the liberty, the lives of all who are dear to him, depended on his exertions, and we must be victorious.

——— *Ultro occurramus ad undam,  
Dum trepidi, egressisque labant vestigia prima.  
Audentes fortuna juvat.* Virgil.

'In the name of God, I say, let every man now show himself a true Briton.' P. 14.

ART. 28.—*Opinions on the present State of the Nation; and the Necessity of an immediate War with France, to save the Country from greater Evils. By the Author of "Considerations on the Laws of Honor," &c. 8vo. 1s. Ginger. 1803.*

The body of this pamphlet was written, it seems, before the war, the dedication to Mr. Addington, since. The intention of the writer was, to urge to the minister the necessity of recommencing it; and

the minister, he now finds, has kindly anticipated his wishes. It is not to be wondered at that this author should be solicitous for the return of hostilities, since he traces in their effects so many blessings to the people at large.

'Our internal resources,' says he, 'are at this moment immense, notwithstanding the insinuations of evil disposed and mercenary men. The fact is evident, while we borrow from ourselves we are certainly able to repay ourselves. *Men judge narrowly of these things.* Let them examine fairly, and they will find the *national debt nothing less than a proof of national treasure*; for the united wealth of individuals must ever be considered such. What has the last war done? Added, say the croakers, three hundred millions to the debt of the nation, which, in other language, is throwing three hundred millions of money, with the constant interest of that sum, into circulation, by which means industry, trade, &c. has been benefited. Men talk of the expence of war as though money was taken from their pockets and sent into the ocean, never to be seen again. Stock jobbers suffer, or fancy they do, *pro tempore*; but their sufferings are no more than that of a gamester, who loses by the very means he hoped to have gained; stock jobbers, who, *bona fide*, hold their own property, lose nothing; they find in the public funds not only a ready, but secure mart for their surplus money, which would otherwise lay [*lie*] idle and useless in their coffers, or [*be*] employed only when they could find opportunity in laying it out in mortgages and private loans, the uncertainty of any periodical redemption, or payment of regular interest, rendering that source very precarious. In the present instance of funding our property, *it is equally accessible as in our own possession*, converted into a circulating medium any day we please, and again put out to interest as quickly, devoid of all those dry forms of law, or the tricks and chicanery of imposing scriveners.' P. 16.

It is not from the war, or the effects of the war, that the evils of the present day are principally produced: it is, it seems, from the institution of charity-schools, and a consequent excess of learning.

'The overabundance of learning in this enlightened age, creates more evils of this nature than war, or the high price of provisions. The great competition for liberal employments, reduces the wages of their employment so much, and the extravagance evinced by clerks, &c. aping the manners of their superiors, embarrasses them beyond any other cause. Did these men consider, and compare their situation with that of the farmer or husbandman, toiling from morning till night, through the heat of the day, subsisting on the coarser part of that food his industry has produced, they would not then begrudge him of his present extended profits, which bear but a small proportion; nor envy him of the change, that has from this oscillation in the scale of justice benefited him now.' P. 20.

'With respect to the immense number of charity-schools in this kingdom, however much I may applaud and appreciate the philanthropy of the founders, I find them fraught with numberless inconveniences, not only to the state, but individuals, and this, sir, is ma-



nifest in the present state of matters. Boys, of sound and strong constitutions, fitted by nature for laborious employments, and who, by custom from youth, would soon be rendered familiar to them, are placed in a public school; after several years spent in study, then they are sent frequently to universities, or placed in superior situations in our merchants' counting-houses. The major part of them if pursuing the liberal arts and sciences, become dependent on the world, by filling those stations which are fitted for men of a very different class, who from birth, and physical causes, are unfitted for labour, formed by nature for the improvement of arts, and the management of important concerns. We find these youths, who might have served the state in trade, manufacture, or agriculture, lounging away an idle life, in some liberal profession, of which they generally obtain no more knowledge than that of hypocritical cant, or superficial conversation to answer their mean purposes. How frequently we see men, whose fathers have served the state, whose breasts burn with ardor to excel in public virtue, who have imbibed from them the sentiments of true honor; high spirited youths, who cannot stoop to mean flattery and servility, totally neglected, and cast aside, to make way for these upstart locusts of society, who without a single spark of honor or honesty, more than a bare compliance with the will of their patrons, whom they are the mere echo of; and who are instructed in the principle of mean servile docility, usurping the places of their superiors, without adding to, or caring about, the duties or services they have undertaken to perform or improve, remove these superfluous beings; and few would have cause to complain, genius would find patrons, and learning would be respected.' P. 21.

There can be no doubt that the literary orbit in which this writer moves is immense; but it becomes us to state, before any stop is actually put to the progress of science, and the seminaries of mental improvement, that, in our *narrower spheres* we have not yet noticed that *over-abundance* of learning of which he here so grievously complains. It is but justice, however, to observe that the writer has offered many pertinent observations upon the present plan of educating the daughters of persons in low and limited trades, by which they are stimulated to look far beyond their own rank in life, to despise their parents and their parents' calling, and fall an easy, but bitter sacrifice to the lying and dissipated gallant. He calculates, that 'in this town alone, there are not less than one hundred thousand of these unfortunate characters, living, or rather barely subsisting, by open prostitution.' and he submits to the ministers a variety of regulations on their behalf.

'Here, sir,' says he, 'I shall once more digress, to bring to your notice the present condition of this *valuable part of the community*, who are certainly deserving protection, and claim the notice of the legislature.' P. 24.

But upon this subject, as we perceive nothing that needs further to detain us, we must leave the author and the minister to settle the concerns of this *valuable part of the community* as in their infinite wisdom they may best be able.



ART. 29.—*An Address to the People of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, on the threatened Invasion. Printed by Order of the Association for preserving Liberty and Property, &c. at the Crown and Anchor, in the Strand. 8vo. 2d. Downes. 1803.*

If there be little novelty in the arguments here adduced, it is far less the fault of the writer than that the important question has been so frequently brought forward in every possibility of shape, that perhaps nothing new remains to be added to it. The address is, in itself, a well-written and temperate enumeration of the causes of the war, and the dangers to which we are exposed, together with the means of resisting those dangers with success. It was published a short time anterior to the universal spirit of volunteering; and we are happy to find that, in his ideas upon this subject, the writer has not been deceived.

‘In hoping, however, to conquer and enslave Great Britain, your enemies rely chiefly on one chance, which, I think, will never be realized. They trust that they will have only the British army to contend with. They dare to hope, my countrymen, that the British people will be idle spectators of the contest; that you will look on, as if it were a matter of indifference—whether you are to be protected by a British king, a British constitution, and British laws, or to have a Corsican tyrant for your ruler, and Frenchmen for your masters—whether you are to continue to receive from British merchants and farmers the rewards of your labours, or to pay your last farthing in contributions to your ancient enemies,—whether, in short, you are still to derive from your commerce, manufactures, and agriculture, a sure subsistence for yourselves and families, or, by the desolation of your fields, and by the destruction of your commerce and manufactures, to be reduced to a state of distress and despair, of which it is impossible, but by dreadful experience, to form any idea. In trusting to such a chance, in relying on such a hope, Buonaparte shews that he is not acquainted with your character. He puts you upon a level with those stupid nations upon the continent, whom he cajoled into supineness and inactivity, while he was triumphing over their armies, and whom he afterwards punished as they deserved, for their want of patriotism, foresight, and common sense. He will, however, (and I beseech you attend to the warning), in order to prevail upon you to follow their example, endeavour to practise upon you the same arts of delusion, which succeeded with them. The moment he shall have effected a landing he may be expected, according to his invariable custom, to issue a proclamation; in which he will declare, that he comes to make war only against the British government; that he will be the friend and protector of the British people, and will give them an opportunity of choosing their own government; that his troops shall observe the strictest discipline; that persons and property shall be respected; and that those only who act offensively against the French armies will have any thing to fear. Such are the promises by which he prevailed upon the Swiss and other nations, to neglect the defence of their country—and you know how terribly he has fulfilled those promises; and he will doubtless endeavour to cajole you in the same manner. But I am persuaded that you are not to be thus cajoled. You will never be prevailed on to

doubt that the man, who in time of peace, endeavoured to destroy the freedom of the British press, would make you the most abject of slaves if once he became your master. I am confident that in whatever part of the country your foe may land, your bold unconquerable spirit will compel you to afford all possible assistance to his majesty's troops, and, to the utmost of your power, harass, alarm, fatigue, and destroy the enemy. I am confident that every one of you who can command a musquet, though he should not have an opportunity of using it in a disciplined corps, will level it from hedge to hedge at some of the invaders. Britons are the most humane people on earth; but every one of them who can destroy a Frenchman, landed on British ground in order to reduce it to slavery, may justly pride himself, to the end of his days, on such an act of patriotism and justice.' p. 13.

ART. 30.—*The Country in Arms; or, No Danger from Invasion.* By an Old Soldier. 8vo. 1s. Ginger. 1803.

'Individuals,' says the author, referring to Bonaparte, 'much less nations, deserve *oblique* when they suffer themselves to be insulted with impunity; such insults the effusions of an inflated vanity, shew rather the imperfections of the human mind, than it argues a want of capacity;—and it rarely happens that any consideration short of experience will correct the folly of men who value themselves upon their good fortune. Philosophy, however, should teach him, that he is but a man at the head of forty millions of slaves, and his reading, that every Briton is a freeman, competent to the full exercise of all his powers, moral and intellectual; and doing every justice to this wonderful man, we pause in believing that a human being so highly gifted, could be guilty of the massacre of four thousand of his fellow creatures in cool blood! But which, if true, fixes an indelible stain upon a character, which adding another scarf to the dazzling pages of historical record, humanity shrinking at the tales, in place of heroes, discover only cannibals and monsters.' p. 7.

When Socrates, after having received from Euripides the very obscure and unintelligible treatise on nature, by Heraclitus, who was celebrated for his impenetrable style of writing—*clarus ob obscuram linguam*—was asked his opinion of the work, he replied, with much liberality, that *what he could comprehend* of it was excellent, and he doubted not that the rest which *he could not comprehend* was equally so. If we pay a small portion of the same compliment to the writer of the pamphlet before us, he will have no reason to be dissatisfied with our verdict.

## RELIGION.

ART. 31.—*Plain Thoughts on the New Testament Doctrine of Atonement,* by John Simpson, of Hackney. 8vo. 2s. Johnson. 1802.

'The most powerful motive to Christian obedience' (says the author) 'is not to be found in the system of either Calvin or Socinus; it lies between them, and is neglected by them both.' In this sentiment there is great justice; and the author's point is to show where



the truth is to be found—which he might have done without the violent language employed against priests in his introduction, which will prevent many persons from entering upon the discussion with a proper coolness of temper. According to him, then, ‘the true scripture notion of atonement is not that of doing something to conciliate God, or to make satisfaction for sin, but to bring the offending party to a state of reconciliation with God:’ and, in the following manner, the apostles are introduced, as addressing mankind upon this important subject.

‘Men! “you have destroyed yourselves,” by sinning against heaven; your case is desperate, and your destruction is inevitable, unless you hearken to our advice. The God of all grace interests himself for your restoration to happiness. He has invested us with an high commission, and appointed us to negotiate the great affair with you. It is nothing less than a most earnest entreaty, that you will accept his offered friendship and be reconciled to him, who notwithstanding all you have done to offend him, hath never yet ceased to love you. Of this he has afforded you the most unequivocal proof, by sending the Son of his love into the world, commanding him to lay down his life, that he might hereby commend and demonstrate that love to you. You conceive because you have offended him, that he hates you; thus you judge of him by yourselves, and in doing so you err most egregiously; for his ways are not like your ways, neither his thoughts like your thoughts. We are authorised to declare, and empowered to demonstrate, that he loves you although you are his enemies; his heart is set upon being your friend, and that you may be his,—“we therefore pray, be ye reconciled to God.” r. 43.

Hence, the author asserts, that the notion of satisfaction by the death of Christ is not a doctrine of Scripture: and all the passages which are supposed to countenance this doctrine, he considers as mere figurative expressions twisted into an improper meaning by the advocates of this tenet. God is therefore, in his apprehension, one in person, who always loved his creatures, though alienated from him by their sins; and who manifested his love in the highest degree by the Gospel dispensation, by which, through the mediation of Christ, we are saved from our sins, and reconciled to the Father.

ART. 32.—*An Essay on the Duration of a future State of Punishments and Rewards.* By John Simpson. 8vo. 2s. Egerton. 1803.

Every man must naturally feel anxious on this important subject, and be seriously disposed to inquire, first, concerning the fact whether death will put an end to his existence; and, secondly, in case it does not, whether such existence be productive of happiness or misery. The doubts of the wisest philosophers of antiquity, who were unacquainted with the truths of revelation, sufficiently demonstrate the little knowledge that is to be acquired on this subject from the glimmering light of natural religion. It is the resurrection of our Saviour which has positively decided the question: and we now know to a certainty, that all who live will merely pass through the gates of death to another state of being. The mode of this existence can be ascer-



tained also by the light only of Revelation; and all conjectures founded on our imagination ought to be excluded from this inquiry. If it had pleased God to have given us full information concerning the future state, it might, by many unthinking persons, have been considered as a great advantage; but our present infirm state is as little calculated to bear such information, as that of a child of three years old to comprehend the businesses or professions of those around him who have arrived to years of maturity. A few great truths are revealed to us, and in language adapted to the subject; but, not content with the general truths, many have taken upon themselves to dogmatise upon the fate of their fellow-creatures, and to consign the majority of them to a state of never-ending misery. But are such persons authorised to dogmatise in this manner by the Scriptures?—for to these alone are we to look for the truth of such tremendous denunciations.

The mode of examining the question in this work is admirable. The expressions relating to the future state of the wicked are investigated, and the real meaning of *αιων*, *αιωνιος*, *απολλυμι*, *απωλεια*, &c. are ascertained; whence the author determines, that there is no one passage in Scripture which asserts positively that the wicked shall endure, in a future life, eternity of punishment. The passages relative to the future state of the good are then examined; and, as the words *αιων*, and *αιωνιος*, are applied to this state also, it might be supposed that their happiness would, in like manner, be of finite duration; but it is shown, that, upon this side of the question, there are certain expressions occasionally to be met with, on which no doubt can possibly arise; and whence the never-ending happiness of the good must necessarily be inferred. The different metaphors used on both subjects are examined with great judgement; and the whole forms a work which we most strenuously recommend to the perusal and close attention of every one who wishes for a clear view of this interesting argument.

ART. 33.—*A Letter to the Rev. John Kentish, occasioned by some remarkable Passages in his Sermon, entitled, A Review of Christian Doctrine, delivered at Hackney, on Sunday, January 2, 1803. By William Sturch. 8vo. 1s. Johnson. 1803.*

Upon these remarks, the writer makes the following observation.

‘I have no doubt there are many who will be of opinion, that hardly any sufficient apology can be made for the freedom and publicity with which they are offered. They will say, that, for a layman to publish remarks, which they will be very apt to construe into an attack on your sermon, is a very reprehensible breach of decorum; and they will think, that, if there were any parts of it which required explanation, I might have sought that explanation in a more private way.’ P. 32.

We cannot suppose that there are any so absurd as to imagine a sermon committed to the press to be an improper object of animadversion, or the character and situation of preacher and hearer so different, that the latter should be guilty of a breach of decorum in showing that he has

been attentive to an excellent discourse. If this, however, be the case among dissenters, it is assuredly not so in the established church. The writer does not agree with the preacher on certain points: he proposes his difficulties in a modest dispassionate manner, is extremely fond of the Christian religion, but would take away its main stay and support: he runs into the vulgar error of believing in our Saviour's existence, and extolling his character, though he cannot bear the idea either of miracles or prophecies. Two points are here chiefly discussed: the first, that there is no proof that the four Gospels were published anterior to the destruction of Jerusalem; the second, that the hopes of a future resurrection are not built solely on the death and resurrection of our Saviour. We cannot perceive much force in the arguments advanced on these heads; yet the time of the preacher will not be misemployed in entering more at large into the subject, and giving his friend complete satisfaction. We are happy to learn that he is fully competent to such an undertaking.

ART. 34.—*Letters to an Universalist: containing a Review of the Controversy between Mr. Vidler and Mr. Fuller; on the Doctrine of universal Salvation. By Scrutator. 8vo. 3s. sewed. Button and Son. 1802.*

There has been, it seems, a dispute between Mr. Vidler and Mr. Fuller, two dissenting ministers, on the subject of the eternity of future torments; the former being an advocate for universal restoration, the latter a champion for the dogmas of Calvinism. Scrutator pretends to hold the balance between them: but he is forgetful of the province of a reviewer; and, laying aside all pretensions to impartiality, is to be considered merely as a defender of the Calvinist. It is truly distressing to behold in what manner what ought to be a simple discussion may become the means of every species of uncharitableness. Many very respectable divines of the church of England, as well as of other churches, have maintained the obnoxious doctrine which Mr. Vidler supports: yet this gentleman is abused as being a Socinian; and all the rage of Calvinism is let loose upon him through this pretext. The question has nothing to do with Socinianism; and Scrutator throws no new light on a controversy, which ought to be agitated in much better temper.

ART. 35.—*Letters to Mr. Fuller on the universal Restoration, with a Statement of Facts attending that Controversy, and some Strictures on Scrutator's Review. By William Vidler. 8vo. 3s. sewed. Vidler. 1803.*

Mr. Vidler produces the usual arguments in favour of his opinion, which depend chiefly on the meaning of the words *αιων* and *αιωνιος*, with the parallels in the Hebrew *עלם* and *עלם ועד*. The subject has been so long before the public, that no general interest can be excited by this work: but several curious declarations are elicited, which will scarcely be credited by those who are unacquainted with the conduct of dissenters. 'To say,' says our author, 'that a man is of a speculative disposition, would be enough to ruin a minister's character in most orthodox baptist churches in England.' Another fact



is recorded, which does as little credit to the supposed liberality of the age.

'It is a maxim pretty generally allowed among Calvinist churches, that error is worse than vice. This maxim was publicly avowed at the association of the particular baptist churches at Chatham in Kent, 1793. At that assembly I was publicly excluded from their communion for believing and avowing the doctrine of the restitution of all things. The moderator, when he had pronounced the sentence of excision, added, "I am constrained to say, that your moral conduct has been such as would do honour to a much better cause than that in which you are engaged." And the minister who preached on the occasion to a very crowded audience, said, "The universal doctrine is an heresy, and every one who holds it is an heretic; not that every heretic is a wicked man; for heretics are often the holiest of men; but heresy is more dangerous than vice; for if a wicked man is sound in the faith, there is some hope of him; such are often recovered; but as for heretics, they are very seldom recovered from their errors." There were near thirty Calvinist ministers of different denominations present, and only one of them disavowed the sentiment that was so publicly taught. I have from that time to this been treated with the utmost contempt by many nominal Christians of loose characters, who have been taught that the holiest of men may be heretics, and that heresy, though attended with holiness, is worse than vice!!! The enormity of this maxim appears in its full view when it is recollected, that by error and heresy we are not to understand a departure from Christianity, but a departure from Calvinism.' P. 72.

These Calvinistic and baptist churches still bandy about the terms heretic and orthodox: and thus almost every man in this circumscribed sect, while he inveighs against popery, imbibes the worst part of its spirit. Mr. Vidler ought to rejoice at his present excision, and to treat his late brethren, in return, with the king of Prussia's letter to the people of Neufchatel.

### MEDICINE, &c.

ART. 36. — *On Consumption of the Lungs: in which a new Mode of Treatment is laid down, and recommended to public Attention; as having been found powerfully efficacious, particularly in the first Stage of Tuberculous Consumption, before purulent Expectoration commences. With a few necessary Directions in respect to Regimen, &c. &c. By E. Peart, M.D. &c. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Miller. 1803.*

When we lately stated the inconveniences arising from the timidity of old age, we noticed the opposite disadvantages from the eagerness of youth. We know not the number of years which Dr. Peart has reckoned; but we perceive, apparently, too great confidence in the efficacy of a medicine from insufficient trials. We speak with less reserve on this subject, as, about thirty years since, we thought we were in possession of many remedies equally certain for this and other complaints. They have since failed.



As we cannot, however, decide from experience on the utility of the medicine before us, we shall copy the author's own formula. The disease was a tubercular consumption; and the remedy was successful.

'The medicine I sent her was composed of twelve grains of opium, well mixed, by trituration, with three drachms of water; to which were added, three drachms of the syrup of white poppies, one ounce of spirit of ammonia, or volatile aromatic spirit, and two drachms of ethereal spirit of vitriol.

'Of this she was ordered to take one tea-spoonful in a little cold water immediately on its arrival, and to repeat it again in the afternoon, and at night going to rest. If the pain or cough seemed to require a larger dose at any time, it might be increased to one and a half, or two tea-spoonfuls, particularly at nights; but if one tea-spoonful gave her ease, to increase the dose would be unnecessary.

'Two scruples of the common aloetic pill, and one scruple of volatile alkali or mild ammonia, were formed into eighteen pills, with orders to take one, two, or three, whenever the bowels were not sufficiently or regularly open.' P. 46.

Our readers may recollect that the remedy for scarlatina was prescribed in almost a moment of despair, so that this adds to the number of 'lucky hits.'

**ART. 37.**—*On the Influenza, as it prevailed in Bristol, and its Vicinity, during Part of February, March, and Part of April, 1803.* By John Nott, M.D. 8vo. 1s. Longman and Rees. 1803.

This epidemic appeared at Bristol about the end of January; and Dr. Nott thinks that it arises from miasmata in the air, not from contagion. Bleeding at Bristol was not found peculiarly serviceable: indeed, the peripneumonic symptoms seem not to have been so violent as at Bath. The treatment offers no other remark of importance. Some observations on former epidemic catarrhs are premised; and the resemblance to that of 1782 seems most striking.

**ART. 38.**—*An Account of the epidemical Catarrhal Fever, commonly called the Influenza, as it appeared at Bath in the Winter and Spring of the Year 1803.* By William Falconer, M.D. F.R.S. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Robinsons. 1803.

This epidemic appeared at Bath about the middle of February, and was distinguished by the usual symptoms. If there was any one peculiarly characteristic, in our author's opinion, it was the vertigo. The disease seemed more general in Bath than in most other places; though, we think, more mild. Where it was severe, the inflammatory symptoms were most conspicuous, and the catarrh bore active bleeding with advantage. In one fatal case, the appearances, on dissection, were those usually found after the most violent peripneumonies. Our author thinks it contagious.

The chief peculiarity in the treatment consisted in frequent bleeding where the peripneumonic symptoms were considerable, which our author thinks did not lessen the strength so much as might have been ex-

pected. Blisters were useless for the affection of the side, though they relieved the vertigo. An account of the disease, as it appeared in France, from the *Moniteur*, and a paper from Dr. Haygarth on the contagious nature of the influenza of 1775, conclude this little work.

ART. 39.—*A short Essay on the Nature and Cause of Influenza; in which the important Question is discussed, Whether the Influenza is contagious or not? With Answers to the Questions of Dr. Beddoes, proposed in his circular Letters to the different medical Practitioners. To which is [are] added, Observations on the Cause of the London Plague, in 1665. Together with a Hint for stopping the Ravages of the Yellow Fever, in the West-Indies.* 8vo. 1s. Murray. 1803.

Our author's account of the influenza consists of replies to the queries of Dr. Beddoes; but they offer no very new observation. He considers influenza as infectious, not owing to any particular miasma, but to the late mild moist winter. The fever appeared to him of the typhoid kind, and he found the bark useful in its decline.

The plague, from Sydenham's description, seemed, on the contrary, to arise from the preceding cold, and to be an actively sthenic complaint running rapidly to mortification: hence the advantage of early bleeding. In this respect, however, the author appears to be mistaken, as the plague is an asthenic rather than a putrid fever. The yellow-fever he supposes to arise from drought, as it was checked by rain; and he advises watering the streets. The author is apparently a young man, and catches at accidental circumstances, without comparing the whole train of symptoms. Age will lessen his confidence, and add to his powers of cool accurate discrimination.

ART. 40. — *A Treatise on the Means of purifying infected Air, of preventing Contagion, and arresting its Progress. By L. B. Guyton Morveau, Member of the National Institute of France, &c. Translated from the French by R. Hall, M.D.* 8vo. 6s. Boards. Hurst. 1802.

We have repeatedly noticed this little work in its original dress, and can now add nothing further to our commendations.

#### EDUCATION.

ART. 41.—*Family Stories; or, Evenings at my Grandmother's; intended for young Persons, of Eight Years old. By Miss Gunning.* 2 Vols. 12mo. 4s. Bound. Tabart. 1802.

ART. 42.—*Family Stories; or, Evenings at my Great Aunt's; intended for young Persons of Ten Years old. By a Lady.* 2 Vols. 12mo. 4s. Bound. Tabart. 1802.

ART. 43.—*Family Stories; or, the rural Breakfasts of my Uncle. Intended for young Persons of Twelve or Fourteen Years old. By a Lady.* 2 Vols. 12mo. 4s. Bound. Tabart. 1802.

\* The tales selected by my grandmother, for our improvement, were those of the fairies; my aunt, made choice of such as should at

the same time convey, amusement and instruction; being of a moral tendency, unaided by the marvellous; and as we arrived at a more advanced period of our lives, the highly cultivated mind of our more enlightened preceptor, constantly brought forward during our morning repast, (which when the weather would admit of such excursions, was constantly taken in the fields) models of virtue, for our imitation, or held up to our contemplation, those who have deviated from her paths, in a light well calculated to deter his young and attentive auditors from ever passing the strict line which can only lead to honor and respect in this world, and everlasting happiness in that to which we look forward with hope and trust, as the sure reward for all the sorrows the most fortunate must expect to meet in this valley of affliction.' Vol. i. p. 6.

Miss Gunning's selection is a very proper one: but the sentence which we have here quoted must surely strike her, as an unconscionably long and slovenly period. We should not have mentioned a slight mistake, had not the author laid it down as a self-evident truth, that if a woman has a child a-year, the eldest must *of course* have completed its *eighth* year, when the eighth child is born. If Miss Gunning will try her arithmetic again, she will find that the eldest can, at the birth of the youngest, be only seven years old.

### TOPOGRAPHY.

ART. 44.—*A new and accurate Description of all the direct and principal Cross-Roads in England and Wales, and Part of the Roads of Scotland, &c. &c. By Lieut.-Col. Paterson. 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1803.*

This new edition of Mr. Paterson's book of roads is by far the most copious, correct, and judiciously arranged, work that we have seen. The preface relates to Mr. Cary's description; and that gentleman is charged with plagiarism—a charge which the editor attempts to support in the appendix. As two courts of justice have decided on this subject, we need not interfere:—*non nostrum est, &c.* It is enough for us to observe, that, in the present volume, nothing is omitted which seems necessary to be known by the traveler; and it should be the companion in every journey or excursion.

ART. 45.—*Kearsley's Traveller's entertaining Guide through Great Britain; or, a Description of the great Roads and principal Cross-Roads, &c. &c. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Kearsley. 1803.*

This work we have noticed, with due commendation, in the first edition; and, in the present, we find numerous improvements. It is less full, with respect to roads and distances, than Mr. Paterson's Itinerary; but contains much more information on the situation and history of the different towns through which the roads pass.

### POETRY.

ART. 46.—*The Appeal of the imprisoned Debtor. 4to. 1s. 6d. Bell. 1802.*

Perhaps a feeling public will perform an act gratifying to itself, and



of high importance to the unfortunate author of this appeal, by the purchase of his copies. But it must be considered as an act of charity: there is nothing in the work itself to recommend it.

ART. 47.—*Miscellaneous Pieces of Poetry. By a Mechanic. Published solely for the Benefit of his Mother, a poor Widow.* 12mo. 1s. Williams.

In an address to the public, the author states that the sole motive which induced him to send these effusions into the world, was to relieve the distresses of an aged mother. All the pieces in this collection have a religious tendency, and are the production of one of Calvinistic, or, as they are more commonly termed, methodistical principles. To speak in favour of the versification, it is not in our power; but we hope the pious endeavours of a dutiful son will not be lost on the humane and benevolent Christian. The will, in this instance, may be fairly said to sanctify the deed.

#### NOVELS, &c.

ART. 48.—*Arthur Mercyn. A Tale. By C. B. Brown.* 3 Vols. 12mo. 12s. Boards. Lanc. 1803.

There is no inconsiderable degree of praise due to the author of these volumes for the spirit and force of his diction, as well as the knowledge of the human heart displayed throughout them. The miseries suffered by the unhappy subjects of the yellow-fever in Philadelphia are very feelingly depicted; but perhaps so great a number of pages as are employed in the description of this malady, would better have become any other species of publication than a novel. If we were inclined to find fault, we might say that Mr. Brown has been frequently too minute in his relation of trivial occurrences, sometimes almost to garrulity; but we have been too much pleased, on the whole, to notice blemishes like these. Milton considered it indelicate to marry any other than a virgin; and Shakspeare says,

‘ Let still the woman take an elder than herself.’

Our author feels himself bold enough to differ from them both. For this, we shall not dispute with him. But we certainly cannot go the length with him, to acknowledge that the wedding one who has been a wife and a mother before, is an advantage *in se*; or, that a woman’s sensibilities will be stronger towards a second husband, because they have been exercised and chastened in her union with a first.

ART. 49.—*Erestina, a Tale, taken from the French, with Alterations and Additions by the Translator. By Francis Lathom.* 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Boards. Payne.

How much of Erestina is taken from the French, and how much is Mr. Lathom’s own, we cannot inform our readers; for we have not thought it necessary to make the search. It cannot, and, we believe, it does not, pretend to lay claim to any great share of celebrity or praise. There is no diversity produced by under-plots, nor any la-

boured intrigues to swell out the work. The story is a simple one; and it is not badly related.

ART. 50.—*Thaddeus of Warsaw. By Miss Porter. 4 Vols. 12mo. 14s. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1803.*

Miss Porter has availed herself of a very interesting period in history for the foundation of her tale. Often have we felt our heart rent by indignation and pity, at the dismemberment of Poland, and the cruel fate of Stanislaus. Truth and fiction are blended with much propriety in these volumes; and we have turned with sincere pleasure the pages that praise the valour of Kosciusko; and recount, though but as a novel, the adventures of a Sobieski.

### MISCELLANEOUS LIST.

ART. 51.—*Essays addressed to young Women. Intended as a Guide to their entering into the Marriage State. By Mrs. Kendal. 24mo. 1s. Bound. Jones. 1802.*

Mrs. Kendal has here prepared six essays for the perusal of the younger part of her sex. The volume is so small a one, that it may be kept conveniently in a lady's housewife; by which means it will be always ready for consultation. The first essay is on religion, the second on conjugal affection, the third on dress and temper, the fourth on friendships and amusements, the fifth on various duties connected with social life, and the sixth on the education and culture of the female mind. The author has said nothing new on these subjects, and pretends not to have written elegantly: what, however, she has written, may be read with some advantage by those for whom it is intended.

ART. 52.—*An Address from a Country Minister to his Parishioners, on the Subject of the Cow-Pox, or Vaccine Inoculation. By Thomas Alston Warren, B. D. &c. 8vo. 4d. Rivingtons. 1803.*

If we mistake not, we have already had occasion to notice this address. It is plain, persuasive, and, on the whole, proper for the occasion; but, in a literary view, it can have no rank.

ART. 53.—*Hints for the Improvement of the Irish Fishery. By George N. Whately. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard. 1803.*

Our author is laudably zealous for the success of the fishery on the coast of Ireland. His great object, however, is to enforce the utility, and obtain protection, for the trammel nets, so often destroyed by those who fish with the hook and line. Mr. Whately is, however, no fisherman; and, though his arguments are on the whole just and proper, his errors respecting fishing are not a few.